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# Journal of the Society of Arts.

FRIDAY, MAY 21, 1869.

## Announcements by the Council.

### ORDINARY MEETINGS.

Wednesday Evenings at eight o'clock :—

MAY 26.—*Derby-day*.—No MEETING.

### COMMITTEE ON INDIA.

Conferences are now in course of being held for the discussion of various subjects connected with India.

The following arrangements have been made for the remaining conferences :—

THIS EVENING (FRIDAY), MAY 21.—“Waste Lands.” By GEORGE CAMPBELL, Esq. Adjourned discussion.

FRIDAY EVENING, MAY 28.—“Trade with Central Asia, Thibet, and South-Western China.” On this evening the chair will be taken by Lord WILLIAM HAY.

At these Meetings the chair will be taken at 8 o'clock.

Members of the Society interested in Indian questions are invited to attend.

### POSTAL REFORM COMMITTEE.

The Council have appointed a Committee for the purpose of “promoting the adoption of reduced rates of postage, particularly in reference to printed matter and parcels,” and that Committee is now engaged in the consideration of the question, with a view to secure newspapers and printed matter being carried at rates not higher than those which are found practicable in France, Belgium, and the United States of America.

The Committee met on the 3rd inst., and in accordance with its recommendations, communications have been sent to the proprietors of the principal London newspapers, to the Religious and Charitable Societies, and to the Chambers of Commerce, inviting their co-operation.

Communications have also been sent to Foreign Governments, asking for information as to the postal regulations in their respective countries, especially relating to newspapers, printed matter, and small parcels.

### CAB REFORM.

The Council will appoint an early day for discussing any practical measures for improving the cab system in the metropolis.

Any persons who may desire to submit proposals for discussion are requested to communicate them in writing to the Secretary on or before Saturday, the 29th inst.

### CONVERSAZIONE.

The Council have arranged for a *Conversazione* at the South Kensington Museum on Wednesday evening, the 23rd of June. Cards of invitation will be issued in due course.

### DESIGNS FOR CHANNEL STEAMERS.

The Council of the Society of Arts offer the Gold Medal of the Society, and the large Silver Medal of the Society, for the best and the second-best block model of a steamer, which shall afford the most convenient shelter and accommodation to passengers on the deck of the vessel crossing the Channel between France and England. The steamer is not to exceed in tonnage and draught the best vessels now in use between Folkestone and Boulogne, and the model must be on a scale of a quarter of an inch to a foot. The models, marked in cypher, are to be sent in to the Society of Arts' House, John-street, Adelphi, on or before the 1st November, 1869, with a sealed envelope, giving the name and address of the designer.

The Council reserve the right of withholding either or both medals, in case, in their opinion, the models sent in do not possess sufficient merit.

The following particulars of the South-Eastern Channel steamers, *Victoria*, *Albert Edward*, and *Alexandra*, are given for the convenience of competitors, but it is not intended to confine the designs to them, except as to tonnage and draught :—

Length between perpendiculars, 200 ft.

Breadth of beam, 24 ft.

Depth underside of deck amidships, 12 ft. 6 in.

Draught of water, 7 ft.

Bow, clipper.

Stern, elliptic.

Rig, polacca with two masts, lug foresail, gaff mainsail, staysail, and flying jib.

Engines, oscillating.

Padlle wheels, 17 ft. 6 in. diameter.

Tonnage, 568 tons.

Speed, 17 miles an hour.

### TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The following communication has been addressed to the Institutions in Union with the Society and the Chambers of Commerce :—

Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, John-street, Adelphi, London, W.C., May, 1869.

SIR,—I am directed by the Council of this Society to draw your attention to the accompanying petition in favour of technical education, which has been presented to Parliament under the seal of this Society.

The Council suggest that, if the authorities of your body agree in the prayer of the petition, they should prepare similar petitions, for presentation by the Members of Parliament representing the locality, who should also be requested to support the prayer of such petitions.

I am, Sir,

Your faithful servant,

P. LE NEVE FOSTER, Secretary.

TO THE HONOURABLE THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN PARLIAMENT ASSEMBLED.

*The Humble Petition of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce,*

SHEWETH,

That this Society, as described by Royal Charter, is "actively engaged in the advancement, development, and practical application of every department of science in connexion with the Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce of the country."

That the Society has for some years been connected with a large number of the Mechanics' Institutions and Literary Societies throughout the United Kingdom, and has established, for the benefit of students in such Institutions, annual examinations in various branches of science and art, and granted certificates and prizes to such as have shown themselves qualified to receive them.

That it appears from the reports of the Examiners engaged in this work, and from other sources of information open to the Council of the Society, that a serious obstacle to the progress both of science and of art in the United Kingdom is to be found in the imperfect and limited range of instruction given in secondary schools.

That, in 1867, the Council raised a fund, to which Her Majesty's Government contributed, by means of which they were enabled to assist a large number of working men, engaged in various branches of trade, to visit the Universal Exhibition and the manufacturing establishments in Paris; the only condition imposed on these men being that each should report on what he saw.

That each of these men on his return to England presented a written report to the Council; that these reports have been printed and published for the Society in a separate volume, and are remarkable for the great importance the writers attach to the facilities which the French workmen have for obtaining instruction in science and art, as contrasted with the want of such facilities for the English artisan.

That the Council of the Society are aware that the views expressed by the artisans were fully borne out by the communications of the British Jurors at the Paris Exhibition to the Schools Inquiry Commission. These communications were judged by the Commission to be of such importance as to be made by them the subject of a special report in 1867, laid, by order of Her Majesty, before your Honourable House.

That since the presentation of the above-mentioned Report, the subject of scientific education in foreign countries, in relation to arts and manufactures, has been inquired into and reported upon, under the direction of Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

That in the month of January, 1868, the Society summoned a conference on the subject of Technical Education, which was numerously attended by manufacturers from various parts of the kingdom, Members of both Houses of Parliament, scientific men, professors, artisans, and others interested in the subject.

That resolutions were passed by the conference declaratory of the importance of improved education in secondary schools; of the introduction of science and art as part of the instruction to be given in them; and of the necessity for greater facilities being afforded for the higher education of artisans.

That the Conference also appointed a Committee to draw up a report on Technical Education; that the report of the Committee has been printed and published, and that it lays the greatest stress on the indispensable necessity for sound secondary education in schools, and the introduction into them of systematic instruction in science and art as the basis of Technical Education. The views expressed in their report are in general accordance with those of the Schools Inquiry Commission.

That a Committee of your Honourable House was

appointed in the month of March, 1868, "to inquire into the provisions for giving instruction in theoretical and applied science to the industrial classes," and that such Committee in its report affirms "that the re-organisation of secondary instruction, and the introduction of a larger amount of scientific teaching into secondary schools, are urgently required, and ought to receive the immediate consideration of Parliament and of the country."

That, in the opinion of the Council, the study of natural science and of art is of the highest importance in the education of youth, even more so as an effective means of mental discipline than on the ground of its direct utility, and that it ought to be introduced into all secondary schools.

That the Council consider the secondary education given in schools, and especially the means provided for giving instruction in science and art in the United Kingdom, fall greatly short of the necessities of a well-organised community.

They, therefore, humbly pray your Honourable House to pass such laws as will remedy the existing defects in secondary schools, and give to Science and Art that place in public instruction which the wants of the nation so urgently demand.

Sealed with the corporate Seal of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, in the presence of

P. LE NEVE FOSTER, *Secretary*.

#### SUBSCRIPTIONS.

The Lady-day subscriptions are due, and should be forwarded by cheque or Post-office order, crossed "Coutts and Co.," and made payable to Mr. Samuel Thomas Davenport, Financial Officer.

### Proceedings of the Society.

#### INDIA COMMITTEE.

The fifth conference on Indian subjects was held on Friday evening, the 14th inst., W. S. FITZWILLIAM, Esq., in the chair. The paper read was on "Waste Lands in India," by GEORGE CAMPBELL, Esq. The discussion which followed was adjourned to this evening (Friday), the 21st inst. The proceedings of this Conference will be given in next week's *Journal*.

#### TWENTY-THIRD ORDINARY MEETING.

Wednesday, May 19th, 1869; Sir GEORGE GREY, K.C.B., late Governor-General of New Zealand, in the chair.

The following candidates were proposed for election as members of the Society:—

Crookenden, J. A., Phoenix Gas Company, Bankside, S.E. Curtis, Dr., 15, Albemarle-street, W.

Gardner, Edward Vincent, Berners-college, 44, Berners-street, W.

Gardner, John Dunn, 19, Park-street, Park-lane, W.

Hall, G., 3, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street, S.W.

Hallé, Charles, 11, Mansfield-street, W.

Hammond, Edward W., 29, Charlwood-street, South Belgravia, S.W.

Hankey, William Barnard, Fetcham-park, Leatherhead. Harrison, Octavius B. C., 4, Paper-buildings, Fempie, E.C.

Harvey, John, 33, Harewood-square, N.W.  
 Jago, Arthur, 38, Tregunter-road, Brompton, S.W.  
 James, Hugh, 68, Church-street, Chelsea, S.W.  
 Lamplough, H. T., 22, Myra-villas, King Henry's-road, Hampstead, N.W.  
 Lane, George Henry, 16, Redcliffe-gardens, The Boltons, S.W.  
 Morton, William Scott, 65, Great Russell-street, W.C.  
 Murray, A. J., 181, Albany-road, Camberwell, S.E.  
 Napier, John, 1A, Fitzroy-square, W.  
 Nash, Joseph, jun., York-chambers, York-buildings, Adelphi, W.C.  
 Nelson, Thomas A., 10, Nottingham-terrace, York-road, Regent's-park, N.W.  
 Ramsay, Frederick William, M.D., 15, Somerset-street, Portman-square, W.  
 Taylor, Stephen S., Prospect-villa, Peckham-rye-common, S.E.  
 Warburg, Frederic E., 53, Prince's-square, Bayswater, W.  
 Ward, Edward Matthew, R.A., Kent-villa, Lansdowne-road, Kensington-park, W.  
 Ward, John Edward, Elm-cottage, Grosvenor-road, S.W.  
 Waterlow, Alfred James, 25, Park-crescent, Regent's-park, N.W.  
 Young, Frederick, 10, Russell-road, Kensington, W.

The following candidates were balloted for, and duly elected members of the Society:—

Anderson, T. H. W., 6, Stanley-crescent, Kensington-park-gardens, W.  
 Bartleet, George A., 1, East India-avenue, Leadenhall-street, E.C.  
 Bowring, Samuel, 1, Westbourne-park, W.  
 Cliffe, Thomas, 49, Cathcart-road, West Brompton, S.W.  
 Cooper, Henry, jun., Livermead-cottage, Torquay.  
 Cory, Richard, Commercial-road, Lambeth, S.E.  
 Cotton, Rev. Arthur B., Parsonage, Bow-common, E.  
 Cotton, Henry, Q.C., 10, Sussex-square, Hyde-park, W.  
 Stubbs, Thomas, Coombe-lodge, Lavender-hill, Wandsworth, S.W.

The Paper read was—

#### ON THE PROGRESS OF THE COLONIES.

By JOHN ROBINSON, Esq., F.R.G.S.

Perhaps it may be as well that I should, at the outset of this paper, explain that it is neither within my power nor my purpose to give anything like a general view of the past history and present position of each of the British colonies. Such an undertaking would require far more time than the limits of one evening's discussion will afford, and means of information which it is scarcely possible for one person to compass. The conditions of the colonial empire over which our gracious Queen holds rule are varied beyond those of any other empire concerning which history bears record. In treating of them, you treat in a manner of the world. In glancing at these colonies, your eye ranges around the globe. Men of all colours and nationalities; climates which represent all extremes of heat and cold; lands washed by every sea, and yielding the products of every zone; nature under all her aspects and in all her types, have to be dealt with in considering such a fertile and exhaustless theme as Anglo-Saxon colonisation.

Nor would it be seemly in one whose direct personal experience has been confined to one group of colonies only, to attempt a detailed description of countries whose resources and conditions can be far better and more appropriately set forth by local representatives. My object in bringing under the notice of this influential Society, "The Progress of the British Colonies," is not to give a hasty series of geographical pictures—which must of necessity be vague and imperfect—but to place before an institution that has done so much to promote the advancement of our national commerce and industry, a few plain facts, borne out by statistical testimony,

indicating the part taken by the colonies in the advances that have been made by, and proving, as I venture to hope, the benefits which these colonies are, in more senses than one, to the mother country.

I am well aware that there may be many in this room, as there are, undoubtedly, very many in this country, who hold that the colonies have not contributed, and do not contribute, in any material sense, to the prosperity and advantage of the parent land. Seven years ago a paper\* was read before this Society, having as the apparent result of its arguments, the maintenance of that proposition. From that time to the present, so far as I know, only one attempt has been made to present the question in another, and as I think, in a fairer and truer light. Since the present paper was prepared, I have had the pleasure of reading a most admirable one on colonisation, read in this room four years ago, by Mr. Stones.† Until this document was brought under my notice, I was not aware that the subject had been so exhaustively treated, and I must apologise for having unwittingly traversed the same ground in one or two respects, although the subsequent publication of more complete returns than were accessible in 1865, enables me to show more conclusively that the views we hold in common are confirmed by the indisputable testimony of figures and facts. The opinions expressed in 1862 have gained ground and been more generally adopted, without, as it seems to me, any corresponding endeavour being made to see whether or not the argument was duly sustained by the evidence of positive facts. Over and over again it is asserted that the colonies are no substantial gain to the empire; that England would be better without than with them; that they cost more than they are worth; that they are not only a drain on the imperial exchequer, but a constant source of difficulty to imperial statesmen. I regret that no colonist of wider experience, higher standing, and greater ability, should have come forward to plead the cause from a colonial point of view; but, in the lack of such advocacy, I propose to do my best to show that something may also be said on the other side. And in doing this, I have strictly confined myself to the data furnished by the statistical returns published yearly through the Colonial Office. Later, fuller, and perhaps more accurate information, might have been gleaned from books and from local sources; but as parliamentary returns, accessible to all, and stamped with the authority of the crown, these bluebooks are on all accounts less assailable, and therefore more likely to be conclusive and satisfactory.

I propose to consider the progress of our colonies as revealed in their historical development, their commercial advancement, and their social conditions, and then to glance at the future which past experience and present aspects may seem to foreshadow. Under the first head I must necessarily be brief.

The history of British colonisation is, comparatively speaking, a thing of yesterday. Its records belong entirely to modern times. To a great extent, it comes within the range of the present century. It may be said to date from the first settlement of what are now the United States, for the Pilgrim Fathers were the pioneers of that vast band of colonising adventurers by whom so large a portion of the world's surface has been explored, occupied, and reclaimed. It is a noteworthy fact, construe it as we may, that some of the most prosperous and progressive settlements have been founded by organisations stamped more or less with a religious character. The New England states in America, the district of Albany in the Cape colony, and the Canterbury settlement in New Zealand, are cases in point. As regards the first of these communities, the rules under which it was established, and the principles which animated its founders, might advantageously have been adopted in connection with later systems. I take it that

\* See *Journal*, vol. x., p. 301.

† See *Journal*, vol. xiii., p. 405.

the strict subordination of individual interests to the common weal was the secret of the success which, in course of time, crowned the labours and the sacrifices of the exiles. In reading the history of the early settlers of North America, we read the history of like settlers in South Africa, Australia, and elsewhere, with the mere difference of local colouring. In colonising all new countries the same difficulties have to be met and conquered, the same vicissitudes to be passed through, whether the land so invaded be in the south or in the north world; be worn by wintry winds, or burnt by a tropical sun.

Before the present century set in, British colonisation differed in one respect widely from what it has been subsequently. Then, new lands were regarded not so much as the resorts of home-seeking and home-making people—as outlets for the redundant population and pent-up enterprise of the mother-country—but as regions where absentee proprietors might add to their possessions and their wealth—sources of aggrandisement and enrichment to men who had otherwise no personal interest in the strange but fruitful lands beyond the sea. Now, the colonies are, in the main, possessed by the men who have formed their homes and reared their families in them—whose fortunes are identified with the soil they own by all the ties and associations that can move and attach a man. This difference, perhaps, may in part account for the far greater value which was set upon colonial possessions, in these earlier times, by the statesmen and people of this country, and for the far greater disfavour with which any encroachment upon these possessions, or any threatened curtailment of them, was then contemplated.

I had intended, in preparing this paper, to glance as fully as might be at the history of the colonies as bearing upon the immediate subject of this paper. The more pressing demands, however, of the other topics compel me to defer to some other occasion this review of the past. Meanwhile, to such as are interested in the matter, I would remark that Mr. Merivale's admirable and appreciative work on "Colonisation" supplies almost all that a student can desire.

#### COMMERCIAL ADVANCEMENT.

In dealing statistically with this part of my subject, I intend to restrict myself to the period over which the published Parliamentary returns extend. It is to be regretted that no abstract of colonial statistics, prior to the year 1850, has been issued under the authority of the Crown, as, in the absence of such official data, the retrospect is unduly limited. But, brief as is the period to be reviewed, it represents the whole lifetime of some colonies, and furnishes all that we need for the purpose of illustration, respecting the progress of trade and the advances of industry in all of them. With the exception of Canada and the Indies, none of the British colonies had any notable commercial standing prior to 1850. It was not until 1851 that the gold discoveries in Australia turned the attention of the world to that Southern Continent. The Cape colony, Mauritius, and Ceylon, like New South Wales, Victoria, and New Zealand, did a small trade with the mother country, but it contributed as yet very inconsiderably to the sum total of that commercial greatness which still gives Great Britain pre-eminence.

To those who care for figures, the tables appended will supply in a clear and compact form the information which I shall now proceed to give in fuller detail, and I only regret that it is out of my power to render these dry statistics more attractive.

India, by right of its wealth and importance, justly takes precedence in the list of our dependencies. That magnificent group of territories forms an empire in itself, of which any nation less ambitious than the English might be proud indeed. Its commercial progress is in keeping with its magnitude and its traditions; its industry keeps pace with its trade. In 1850 the import

trade of India was more than £13,000,000; in 1866 it was £56,000,000. In 1850 its exports amounted to £18,000,000; in 1866 they were £67,500,000. In 1850 the tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at Indian ports was 1,403,633; in 1866 the tonnage was 4,160,356. In 1850 India consumed £7,500,000 worth of British manufactures; sixteen years later her consumption was close upon £25,000,000. Although India is so large a producer of cotton, she consumes as largely as ever the textile fabrics of this country. In 1850 the value of cotton piece goods imported was more than £3,500,000; in 1866 it was nearly £12,000,000.

We find the progress of Indian industries reflected in the list of her exports during this period. The shipments of coffee have advanced from 2,191 to 17,350 tons. Raw cotton has increased almost four-fold, the export in 1866 being 803 millions of pounds, against 165 millions. Up to 1863 the export of manufactured cotton goods was almost stationary. Since then it has advanced to a value about double what it was, being now £1,732,133. Dyes have also remained as they were. Pastoral enterprise does not appear to be as active in the east as in the south, the value of hides and skins exported having only quadrupled. Jute, a staple of great value, and susceptible of boundless production in other countries besides India, has increased from £88,989 to £771,691. The export of opium is nearly double what it was in point of value, and represents above one-sixth of the total exports of the peninsula. Rice, the most important food-stuff of the east, shows great advancement, the value in 1866 being five millions, against £688,000, and the quantity being 3,850,000 quarters, against 818,992. Silk-culture does not appear to have made any progress, the export remaining almost where it was, at about 1½ millions of pounds. The value of silk goods shipped from Indian ports has positively declined, from £441,749 to £88,829. Sugar has also declined from a value of nearly two millions to £361,362. On the other hand, we must recollect that a large portion of the sugar production of other countries is due to the labours of Indian coolies, who have emigrated to Mauritius, Natal, and the West Indies. Sheep or goat farming would appear to be more systematically conducted than of yore, the export of wool being more than six times what it was eighteen years ago. Notwithstanding the extension of enterprise in Assam, no export of tea figures in the returns up to 1866, and the chief industries of the Indian empire are represented by cotton (which takes more than half), rice, opium, coffee, dyes, and fibres. It must suffice to close this reference to her Majesty's great eastern possession by saying that the public debt in 1866 was 98 millions, against 55 millions in 1852.

Ceylon has the happiness to be a prosperous as well as a beautiful and productive country. A few years ago it was in the privileged position of having a surplus revenue wherewith to get its local railways out of certain difficulties that beset them. The import trade of this flourishing colony has increased from a million and a-half to five millions, but more than a million of this is for the rice consumed by the coloured population, and nearly a million and a-half represents specie and bullion. The exports advanced from £1,246,956 to £3,586,454. Coffee occupies about exactly the same relation to the sum total of exports that it did in 1860, being still more than two-thirds of the value. Cinnamon-culture appears to have declined, but there is progress under the heads of areca-nuts, cocoa-nut, and more particularly of cotton. The tonnage of shipping is nearly trebled, being 1,182,325, against 490,662, and of this aggregate more than ten-twelfths represent British vessels. It may be as well here to state, so as to save the repetition of wearisome details, that this proportion of British shipping prevails in all but a few special cases, where the tonnage of foreign vessels is somewhat larger, as at Mauritius, the Falkland Islands, Gambia, Honduras, and the naval stations of Gibraltar and Malta. The public debt of Ceylon has been incurred since the year 1861, and now stands at £450,000.

*Mauritius* is another colony where an insular situation, and a limited area, have proved no bar to the realization of extraordinary productive capacity. That fair island imports goods which, in 1866, were valued at £2,227,093, being a little more than double the value of its imports in 1850. Mauritius, however, depends upon other countries for most of her food stuffs, and only a fourth of this amount comes from the United Kingdom. The exports have nearly trebled, and still, as sixteen years ago, almost wholly consist of sugar, the shipments of which, in 1866, amounted to two millions and a quarter. The shipping trade of the island is more than twice what it was in 1850, a fact which bears strong testimony to the value of Port Louis as a port of call for vessels navigating the eastern seas. Like most other colonies and countries, the Isle of France has been smitten by the railway mania, and, since 1863, has gone into debt to the amount of a million sterling for the construction of public works. Connected with the Mauritius, as a dependency of that government, are the Seychelles Islands, a settlement of which little is known by the people of this country. And yet no lovelier group of islands can be found throughout the wide seas than this. Although situated close to the Equator, these islands enjoy a mild, equable, and pleasant climate. Formed of bold and rocky hills, and clothed with rich, tropical vegetation, they present the most charming varieties of scenery. Their inhabitants, mostly of mixed coloured origin, are "contented, quiet and prospering," and find their subsistence in fishing, picking coir, and the manufacture of vacoa bags. It is here that the celebrated *cocoa de mer*, or double cocoa-nut, has its habitat; and thick groves of that graceful tree line the shores of the islands at many points. I am not aware that any garrison of regular troops is maintained there, nor, indeed, is there need for one. Illicit distillation appears to be the only foe that has to be guarded against, and an efficient police suffices for that duty.

From the islands of *Labuan* and *Hong-kong* there are no regular returns, and I name them because their position is of so much political importance in connexion with China and the Indian Archipelago, as to render an allusion to them necessary. There are some settlements whose value in relation to the interests of civilisation and commerce cannot be measured by the actual trade done at them. According to the important report furnished to the Governor of Hong-kong by H.M. consul at Canton, the foreign trade with China for 1866 was taken, in round numbers, at the enormous sum of £120,000,000, the tariff duties paid at the foreign custom-houses alone being nearly £3,000,000. The imports of Labuan were £30,970 in 1852, and £109,134 in 1866, the exports being half that amount. This little settlement is intrinsically valuable on account of its coal-mines, while its position in the centre of the East Indian islands may make it a useful base of operations in connexion with those fruitful territories.

Such has been commercially the growth of our Eastern possessions—an empire which covers an area of 1,014,671 square miles, and has a population of 152,973,671 souls. In 1850 the trade of these territories amounted in value to thirty-six millions. In 1866, these last figures had multiplied more than fourfold, having advanced to one hundred and fifty-six millions per annum. In both cases the exports were considerably larger than the imports, and these exports consisted in the main of the raw materials which afford employment to the industry, or contribute to the nourishment and comfort of the people of this country.

We now pass to the South world, and arrive at the great *Australasian* group of Anglo-Saxon colonies. These in point of size and opulence, though not of population, take second rank in the muster roll of imperial dependencies. Forty years ago, as we have seen, these communities had, practically, no existence. Neither Victoria, nor South Australia, neither Queensland, nor New Zealand, were colonised before 1836. Even at that

time New South Wales, the oldest member of the family, was only known as a penal settlement. All the wealth and industry—all the progress and cultivation—which now distinguish these prosperous countries, have been the outgrowth of a time within the memory of almost all of us.

New South Wales on the South-eastern seaboard of the Australian continent, in 1850, had an import trade worth two millions, and an export trade worth two millions and a-third. In 1866, its imports were valued at nearly nine millions, and its exports at eight millions and a-half. The imports of Victoria during the same period advanced from £744,000 to more than £14,000,000, an advance of nearly 2,000 per cent.; those of South Australia increased from £798,000 to £2,835,000; Western Australia moved on from £52,000 to £251,000; Tasmania was least impulsive, having only advanced about 50 per cent., from £658,000 to £942,000; New Zealand, however, sustains the credit of the antipodes, having imported, in 1850, £349,000 against £5,894,000, in 1866, something less than an advance of 1,700 per cent. in 15 years. Queensland, which had no official existence, being part of New South Wales prior to 1860, has, in six years, pushed on her imports from £742,000 to £2,467,000.

The exports of the Australian colonies in 1850 amounted in the aggregate to £4,648,178, of which New South Wales contributed £2,399,000; Victoria, £1,041,000; South Australia, £570,000; Western Australia, £22,000; and Tasmania, £613,000. New Zealand exports are first set down in 1851 at £84,000. In 1866 the aggregate had advanced about 700 per cent., and was more than £31,000,000, apportioned as follows:—New South Wales, £8,500,000; Victoria, nearly £13,000,000; South Australia, nearly £3,000,000; Western Australia, £152,000; Tasmania, £834,000; New Zealand, £4,500,000; Queensland, £1,366,000. New South Wales, therefore, had multiplied her exports about four times, Victoria twelve times, South Australia five times, Western Australia seven times, Tasmania about 25 per cent., and New Zealand about 52 times, or 5,200 per cent. in 15 years.

It would be impossible to review in detail the various export lists. They embrace many varieties of produce, and indicate a wide range of industrial energy. Gold, of course, absorbs a large share—more than one-third of the aggregate. The export of gold from these colonies in 1866 amounted to £11,708,397. Of this amount New South Wales and New Zealand yielded nearly the same proportion, while Victoria contributed about as much as did the two together. Queensland in this year shipped gold valued at £85,561. But Australia can boast of other sources of wealth besides her adventitiously-developed endowment of precious metals. Her shipments of wool—the produce of flocks so vast as to be almost unprofitable—have advanced from five to nine millions sterling. Coal and coke, flour and grain, hides and skins, horses and cattle, copper, gum, and timber, have been shipped from her many ports. Many of her home needs are now being supplied by local manufacturers, and any review of her commercial progress would be wholly incomplete were it to ignore the rapid development of colonial industries in every channel where skill or enterprise can turn to account the raw materials of the country. But notwithstanding the self-supplying disposition on the part of the colonies, no diminution in their trade with the outer world is apparent. Their imports have advanced in sixteen years from £4,333,000 to £36,000,000; their exports have advanced from £4,500,000 to £31,000,000. A trade, therefore, which in 1850 was estimated at £9,027,894, in 1866 reached the limit of £67,164,616, and of this £30,500,000 was done with the United Kingdom. The tonnage of shipping entered and cleared at all the Australian ports in 1857 (the earliest complete record published), was 1,517,267; in 1866 the total was 4,538,968, being an advance of 300 per cent. These facts tell their own tale. I need only add that the public debt of the Australian

colonies in 1866 amounted to more than £24,000,000 sterling, and had been incurred, I believe, almost exclusively on account of railways, public works, and immigration. The entire area of these seven dependencies is 2,582,070 square miles, and the population, which, in 1861, was 1,266,432, is now 1,662,063.

We next come to the *African* settlements, which are scattered over a wider area, and are less compactly situated than their sister groups in Australia, India, and America. These have had none of the historical prestige of India, the golden attractions of Australia, or the energising influences of American enterprise and rivalry, to help them onward. They have been less in favour with home-seeking emigrants than other and better-known lands. Erroneous ideas as to climate, and a traditional avoidance of Africa and its conditions, have combined with other causes to keep the African colonies in obscurity. Great Britain has only a partial hold on the African sea-board. Her settlements on the West Coast, and her colonies on the south, comprise only a small portion of that vast coast line, washed by the waters of three seas. But insignificant, when compared with those of other countries, as may be the figures that represent these communities, no less do they indicate a marked ratio of progress. In 1850, the imports of the seven colonies thus grouped together amounted to £1,752,790. In 1861, the date of the last complete return, the total was £3,631,080. In 1850, the imports of the Cape Colony were a million and a-quarter; in 1866, they were two millions. In 1850, the imports of Natal were £111,000; in 1866, they were £455,000. In 1850, the imports of Sierra Leone were £97,000, and of Gambia £87,000; in 1866, they were £251,000, and £108,000 respectively.

The producing powers of the African settlements have shown even a more rapid capacity of development. In 1850, their aggregate result in exports was £1,702,261; in 1866, it was £3,254,093, or about double. No details of the exports from the western ports are published, but we may assume that they are chiefly represented by palm-oil, fibres, cotton, gold-dust, and ivory. From the Cape Colony, wool is principally shipped, and the steady increase in this export indicates the extension of pastoral enterprise, on the almost limitless plains of that scantily-peopled country; but copper-ore, valued at £90,000, is also shipped, together with ostrich feathers, ivory, skins, and hides, the products of the chase. In one respect the Cape has retrograded. Twelve years ago nearly a million gallons of wine were exported, valued at £155,000. In 1866, only 93,000 gallons, worth £13,000, were sent abroad. This declension was due to the disease which attacked the vines. Wine-farming, however, is again in the ascendant there, and a great improvement is already manifest. I may here remark that it is more than probable that, in course of time, the wine consumers of England may have their wants largely supplied by the British settlements in the Southern Ocean. Australia has for years produced excellent wines of a claret character. The Cape can exhibit sweeter wines of no less excellence, and is now producing wines of a lighter description. It is unfortunate that these colonial beverages should be looked upon with so much disfavour in Europe. It is true that bad kinds of Cape wine have found their way to Europe; it is true that home dealers have found it convenient to palm off these noxious compounds under the name of South African, but it is also true that the mere fact of a wine being colonial is enough, in many minds, to condemn it without a fair trial of its merits. In South Africa, as in Australia, the wines of the country are regularly drunk, by persons who would not scruple to avoid them were they the unwholesome trash they are taken to be.

The colony of Natal has been brought so recently under the notice of this Society, that it is only necessary to state that its exports, which in sixteen years advanced from £17,000 to £263,000, or fifteen-fold, include sugar,

wool, cotton, arrowroot, butter, hides, ivory, ostrich-feathers, grain, and salted meat.

The tonnage of Cape shipping shows an increase of about 33 per cent., and that of Natal about 65 per cent., in sixteen years, but the latter advance would be much higher were a later year taken for the purpose of comparison. Sierra Leone exhibits about the same rate of increase as Natal, but at Gambia the shipping has more than doubled since 1850. St. Helena, being merely a port of call, can hardly be taken into account, and the lonely and distant Falkland Islands, probably for the same reason, can boast a shipping trade six times what it was in 1850. The possession of these islets makes England practically the mistress of the whole south world below the 40th degree of south latitude. Her flag waves over the capes of Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, and at this point may be said to guard the passage around the American continent. Long may it be ere that standard, which is the guarantee of freedom for the world's commerce, and the harbinger of an active civilisation wherever it may be planted, shall cease to symbolise Anglo-Saxon supremacy over these natural outposts of the southern globe.

Sweeping across the whole length of the Atlantic, we come to England's eldest dependency, the noble dominion of *Canada*, which, as befitted her seniority, has so lately set her younger sisters so excellent an example of the work they are called upon politically to do. The earlier returns of her trade are so defective, that I am compelled to give them separately. Canada proper, in 1850, could speak of barely £3,500,000 worth of imports, but, in 1866, she absorbed £11,000,000, her wants having trebled in that period. New Brunswick advanced from £815,000 to £2,000,000; Nova Scotia, from £1,000,000 to nearly £3,000,000; Prince Edward Island, from £123,000 to £444,000; and Newfoundland, from £867,000 to £1,200,000. British Columbia appears for the first time in the returns for 1860, when that colony took £282,000 worth of imports. During the following year that amount was doubled; but, in 1866, the year's total was £298,000. The neighbouring settlement of Vancouver's Island, in 1861, did an import trade worth £416,000; here, also, there was a rapid rise and a subsequent decline, the imports for 1866 being £594,000. Turning to the exports of these vast territories, we find that Canada during the sixteen years advanced from £2,500,000 to more than £11,500,000, her producing capabilities having kept pace and in line with her consuming powers. New Brunswick passed on from £658,000 to £1,333,000. Nova Scotia sent abroad £1,500,000 instead of £671,000. Prince Edward Island, starting with £60,000, in 1866 reached a limit of £246,000. Newfoundland made less progress than her sister colonies, the increase being only from £975,000 to £1,186,000. British Columbian exports for 1860 were £11,000, and for 1866, £43,983; those from Vancouver were, in 1863, £39,000; and in 1866, £120,000. In both these cases, however, gold is excluded, a rather important omission, seeing that, in 1860, the shipment of gold from British Columbia was estimated at £600,000, and that from Vancouver, in 1865, at £426,000.

The list of Canadian exports gives one a fair idea of the resources of these noble provinces. Foremost in bulk and in value comes timber, the produce of those far-reaching forests, upon whose bounds the axe of the woodman and the plough of the settler are encroaching day by day. Next come flour and grain, which are, strictly, the products of industry and the tokens of civilisation. In the space of sixteen years the export of grain, in the form of barley, rye, oats, peas, and wheat, from Canadian ports increased five-fold, from 2,250,000 bushels to 11,500,000, while the shipments of flour nearly doubled. Animals and their produce also contribute largely to the export trade of our North American dependencies. Copper-ore, fish (Newfoundland more especially), seal-skins, and oil, also figure in the returns, a glance at which suffices to show that, in the western world we have the materials of an empire



stretching over an area of 632,000 square miles, with a European population of 4,000,000, nearly four times what it was in 1850, carrying on a foreign trade worth £35,000,000 per annum, threefold what it was sixteen years ago; having a shipping trade represented by a tonnage of 6,500,000 against a tonnage of 4,750,000 in 1859, and burdened with a public debt of £15,500,000.

The last great group of British dependencies which pass under review are the *West Indian Colonies*. These are so numerous that it is impossible to take them separately, but their general characteristics and products are so similar, that they may fairly be considered in the mass. Including Bermuda, Honduras, and British Guiana, there are eighteen distinct governments under British rule in the Spanish main. Although these are amongst the oldest of England's colonial settlements, they have made less progress in proportion than the younger colonies in the southern hemisphere. In some, of course, the area to be occupied has been too small to permit of much expansion. In others, retarding causes of a different nature have been at work. It would be a work for which I by no means feel myself competent, to discuss the influences that have helped to depress the progress of those beautiful islands. It is noteworthy, however, and it may be significant, that in those colonies where the advancement of trade and of productiveness has been most apparent, free labour, supplied by means of East Indian immigration, has been at work. Thus, in British Guiana, the imports in sixteen years increased from £785,000 to £1,500,000; and the exports from £815,000 to more than £2,000,000. In Trinidad the improvement in imports was from £476,000 to £930,000; and in exports from £319,000 to £1,000,000. In Jamaica, the largest of the islands, imports declined from £1,218,000 to £1,152,000, but at St. Christopher there was an advance from £92,000 to £172,000; at Antigua, from £163,000 to £291,000; at Barbadoes, from £951,000 to £1,246,000; and at the Bahamas, from £24,000 to £328,000.

It is satisfactory to find that, in spite of all their drawbacks, and the lack of that enervating influence which the labours of European colonists confer, the producing powers of the West Indian settlements have, in the aggregate, made considerable advances. In 1850, the sum-total of their exports was £4,194,000; in 1866 it was £7,359,000. These exports consist in the main of articles peculiar to tropical latitudes. Sugar and its products, rum and molasses, are the leading features in every case, and, with the exception of Jamaica, the production of this staple has materially increased. Coffee, cocoa, rice, fish, spices, arrowroot, and even meat and flour, are also included in the category.

An attentive perusal of the annual reports furnished to the Colonial Office by the governors of the West Indian colonies will, I think, lead to the opinion that a very bright future lies before these islands and countries. Taught by experience the errors of past legislation and policy, both the governments and the communities at large appear to be entering upon a new career. Scattered though they are, the dependencies I have named cover an area of 102,207 square miles, and have a population of something more than 1,119,000. Of these, but a small proportion are of European origin. I cannot but think that, with the help of free coloured labour, under the influence of resident English settlers, bound, like the planters of Mauritius, by the attachments of home to the soil, and ruled according to principles of government which, among communities of such kindred interests, may apply to them all in common, those regions may yet realise the rich promise of their rare natural endowments, and present in future years a new modification of Anglo-Saxon life and conditions.

I regret that it is out of my power to supply complete and trustworthy statistics, setting forth the progress made in agriculture and in manufacturing enterprise throughout the colonies during a term of years. It would be easy to do this, were the reports sent home from all the colonies as regular and as complete as they

are in some cases. In the matter of statistical information, some of the colonial governments, and notably those of Australia, show remarkable enlightenment and liberality. Nothing can exceed the fulness and breadth of the reports forwarded with the Blue-books for 1866, from New South Wales, Queensland, Tasmania, and South Australia. But as these reports are not uniformly comprehensive, and are in some instances wholly wanting, it is better to withhold statements that must be incomplete and data that might mislead.

The facts set forth, however, will, I think, suffice to show what measure of progress the colonies have made since 1850, and what direction that progress has taken. We have seen that the colonial empire of Great Britain now embraces an area of 4,562,000 square miles (exclusive of the Hudson's Bay territory), considerably more than the area of Europe. We have seen that this immense range of territory is peopled by 160 millions of men, representing every shade of colour and all extremes of civilisation and of barbarism. We have seen that the combined trade of these regions has, in the space of sixteen years, increased fourfold, that is, from £65,000,000 in 1850 to £280,000,000 in 1866. We have seen that, at the beginning of that period, the aggregate of the colonial imports was £33,000,000, and of exports, £31,000,000, and that at the end of it these figures had become £137,000,000 and £143,000,000 respectively. But, what to my countrymen will be a yet more interesting result, is the fact that the consumption by the colonies of British manufactures has kept pace with the rest of their trade, the imports from the United Kingdom having been, in 1850, £18,000,000, and in 1866, £61,000,000. The exports from the colonies to the mother country have increased in a yet greater ratio. In 1850 they corresponded with the imports, being £18,000,000; in 1866 they were £74,000,000. In sixteen years, therefore, the trade of the United Kingdom with her colonies advanced from £37,000,000 to £135,000,000. If we exclude India from the estimate, we find that what may be strictly regarded as the colonial trade of Great Britain, the simple result of Anglo-Saxon colonisation during the last twenty-five years—the fruits of the efforts and enterprise of Anglo-Saxon colonists in Australia, Canada, South Africa, and the Indian islands—has advanced from £34,000,000, in 1850, to £157,000,000, in 1866. The tables of exports we have so rapidly glanced at are, in themselves, revelations of industrial progress. They tell of mining enterprise deep in the bowels of the earth, employing hundreds of thousands of hands, representing millions of capital expended in labour and machinery, and producing results which seem almost fabulous; of ploughs set to work in remote bush-lands of Australia, upon distant uplands in Africa, amongst the far pine-forests of the Canadas; of flocks and herds spreading over the new pastures of unpeopled lands; of homesteads springing up in regions where barbarism has brooded, and where nature alone has reigned; of multiplying mills, outbranching railways, and thickening traffic in and through countries which but yesterday were untrodden solitudes. To colonists, these figures tell also a further tale, of privations endured, of sacrifices undergone, of disappointments borne—a tale of struggle with stubborn difficulties; of battle with ignorance, inexperience, and novelty; of contention with nature's baffling forces encountered under new conditions. I suppose that in no colony has any one export been established without a measure of failure and loss on the part of its first promoters, such as can only be understood by persons who have passed through such an ordeal. In the early years of all new settlements agriculture is entirely experimental, and industry is often fruitless. Before a body of colonists can feel confident of what the country of their choice is capable, and how its resources can be most profitably developed, they have to pass through a wearisome probation of trial and of failure. The process is slow and tentative; its results are only attained by constant toil and unabated



perseverance. It may seem that the progress of trade, as set forth by figures, indicates unbounded prosperity, and an ease of production which entails inappreciable effort. If such an impression be conveyed, it is a false one. The prosperity of the colonies is by no means exceptional, nor are colonists, as a rule, wealthy people. Their produce, though abundant, is not always remunerative, and is often only marketable at rates which leave but a slight margin of profit to the producer. Labour, in many cases, is not only exceedingly scarce, but unduly dear. Transport is always an oppressive charge. Colonies are mostly lands of magnificent distances and of indifferent roads, and, even where railways are established, there are usually special taxes required which have to be reckoned against profits. In some countries there are risks of loss from fire, drought, flood, or other special causes, for which provision and allowance have to be made. The rapid increase in production has a direct tendency to reduce prices, although there may be no corresponding reduction in the expenses of production. Out of the £143,000,000 worth of raw materials exported to other countries from the colonies, I believe it to be more than probable that foreign dealers and manufacturers make a far larger proportion of gain than do the actual producers. It must not, therefore, be assumed that, because the trade of the colonies has exhibited such rapid expansion, and now has attained to such vast amounts, the colonists themselves are, as individuals, proportionately opulent or inordinately prosperous. That many of them have made and are making fortunes, is probably the case, as it is with persons in other parts of the world; but, as to colonists in general, the advantage of their condition rests rather in greater independence than in superior wealth.

#### POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

Let us now quit the dry region of statistics, and consider the more attractive questions connected with the political and social circumstances of the different colonies. And here I must deal generally with the subject, as each colony would supply ample materials for a separate paper.

The principle of self-government has now, for many years, been recognised as the basis of England's relation with her dependencies. In former times the Imperial policy was just the other way. Then, the mother-country ruled her scattered offspring with a high and stern hand; power was all centralised in Downing-street, and the rights of representation and free action were denied to the colonial subjects of the Crown. No despotism could be more perfect than was the rule of a governor in those days; but the tyranny, though illiberal, was paternal, and signified both attachment and appreciation. Now, the position of a colonial governor has been shorn of its irresponsibility; his difficulty is rather how to humour than to restrain the free instincts of the people under him, and he may be said to represent the indifference and the regardlessness of the parent land. There is probably no colony which could not obtain the fullest powers of self-government, if it liked earnestly to ask for them, and there are, indeed, very few that do not already possess these privileges.

Responsible government, that is, government by ministers elected by popular suffrage, has been enjoyed for many years in all the Australian and most of the North American colonies. In these colonies only the governors and, I believe, the judges, are appointed by, and solely responsible to, the Crown. In all other respects the chief features of parliamentary institutions, as known in this country, have been reproduced. In Victoria and South Australia manhood suffrage and the ballot are in operation. In other colonies some kind of qualification is necessary, but the low standard of this—never exceeding a rental of £10, or a freehold of £100 in value, and generally much less than that—practically gives a vote to every one who has any real stake in the country. In

the Mauritius, Ceylon, the West Indies, and one or two other minor settlements, the principle of close government still rules. Not only are the governor and his chief officers the mere nominees of the Crown, but they are assisted by administrative or legislative councils, composed of non-official persons, nominated by the Queen's representative. The circumstances of these communities differ much from those of colonies where the population is chiefly of European origin, that is, where the labouring people is not coloured. I am not aware that even the most advanced believer in the equality of races professes indiscriminately to invest natives, whether they be of African or Asiatic descent, with the political rights of European freemen. The sad experience of Jamaica is probably sufficient to discourage any such attempt. In both the Cape and Natal a modification of the self-governing principle is established, in the form of popularly-elected legislative assemblies, acting in conjunction with irresponsible ministers of the Crown. This system, however, though useful as a preliminary measure, is not found to work successfully, and both communities are likely to ask, ere long, for extended powers of self-government.

It would be folly to deny that, in their early exercise of parliamentary privileges and functions, colonists make frequent exhibitions of inexperience and incapacity. It could not be otherwise. They are but 'prentice hands in the art of government. They have no precedents to guide them, no light from the past illuminates their difficult way. Few colonists possess the independence and leisure requisite to the proper pursuit of statesmanship. Fewer still have had any special training for the work of legislation or the duties of administration. They have, moreover, an immense field of action before them. All the numberless wants of a new country press for satisfaction. Their business is to create, not to reform. They have not to pull to pieces and amend the doings of their predecessors, but to build up, out of materials gathered from other and dissimilar countries, a structure that shall fit the peculiar circumstances of the new land. Then they are responsible as representatives to men who are less bound by set rules of thought and habits of action than are the citizens of older states. Colonial electors think and act for themselves, and usually have very strong opinions upon most subjects. Party and faction, it is true, often run high, but they are more things of a moment than fixed and strong lines of political demarcation. When a judgment is passed upon self-government in the colonies, allowance should be made for the different circumstances of colonial senators, nor should condemnation be pronounced before mischief is really seen to be flowing from the system. A ministerial crisis, a popular commotion, a deadlock between a government and a parliament, may all ensue, and yet the internal administration of affairs be satisfactory and successful. I believe you will find that, in those colonies where events of this kind most prominently transpire, all the functions which a government has to discharge are efficiently fulfilled; justice ably and impartially administered; a vigilant police established; a cheap and regular postal system in operation; roads and railways maintained; education promoted on a broad and liberal basis; public institutions nourished; and statistics actively collected. If all these are secured, as they are in most if not all the colonies, and the community at large is found to be prosperous, contented, and orderly, surely a few political distractions ought not to outweigh the solid good that is done in communities whose faults may be traced to their unavoidable and yearly diminishing misfortune in being, like David Copperfield, so exceedingly young. It might also be possible to suggest that, in far older countries which are the very centre, source, and example of the self-governing principle, the political waters are not always unruffled, nor the parliamentary atmosphere unexceptionably serene.

Self-government in the colonies works under the pecu

liar condition of having republican elements to deal with under a monarchical head. In a social sense, a colony is a reproduction upon a small scale of the American republic. There are practically no hereditary titles, no landed aristocracy, no social grades, save such as money, ability, or taste suggest. Prescription is unknown. The rich man, the ready man, the fortunate man, may rise to the top of the social tree, but no man can do so without one or another of these claims to recognition. In some colonies, perhaps, accident or custom may have brought about a certain social distinction of classes, such as exists between town-people and country-people, tradesmen and farmers, but the division thus created can be regarded neither as material nor permanent. Unless there be some especial personal disqualification, the opportunities of social advancement and of wealth-getting are about equal, to the ambitious and to the capable man; and it is difficult to say whether the time may come that shall see the general recognition of superiority by birth awarded to any one class.

Whatever shifts and privations their early struggles may necessitate, it cannot be said that colonists are at all backward, when their means will permit it, in surrounding themselves with the costlier accessories of civilisation. A strange contrast is that presented by a colony between the first five or ten years of its existence and when a generation has been matured upon its soil. Then, all was rough, raw, and disorderly; now all is set, finished, and trim. Then, here and there patches of badly broken-up ground, small bush-clearings, straw huts, wattled houses, or sod cabins, were the only evidences of European life through vast stretches of bushy wilderness or grassy upland. Now, well-enclosed and carefully-cultivated fields, wide expanses of plantation, substantial homesteads, with all fit environments of garden, orchard, and farm-buildings, meet the eye in every direction, and give to the landscape that angularity of aspect which has ever seemed to me a marked token of civilisation. Europeans follow straight lines, savages keep to circles and curves. Then, might be seen carts and waggons, not too heavily laden, drawn toilsomely along self-made roads, sticking for days by the side of baffling mud-holes, or breaking down in the ascent of stony hills. Now, traffic is carried on conveniently and regularly, in some colonies by railways, in others by means of waggons of an improved description, bearing enormous loads over easy and well-made roads, and across friendly bridges. Then, the villages and towns consisted of confused groups of hastily-erected buildings, compounded out of any material fitted to give shelter—mud, poles, felt, canvas, iron, or the insides of packing cases—with a few structures of a better order standing oddly amongst the shanties around; with unpaved streets deep in mud or sand, and full of hills and dales, with clumps of bush yet left flourishing in the centre of them. Now, in some colonies there are cities that would do no discredit to Europe. Melbourne and Sydney, Quebec and Montreal, are on a par in all respects with leading provincial towns or minor European capitals, while the other chief towns of England's fifty colonies, well-built, well-paved, and well-lighted, though they may have a distinct local character, are, it may fairly be said, in advance of provincial towns in this country, of the same population, in many respects. In towns, for instance, of from 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants, you will often find established institutions, clubs, banks, chambers of commerce and agriculture, and other forms of social and commercial organisation, which would, in other countries, be only found in equal measure in towns of much greater size and population. In many of these centres public works of much magnitude have already been carried out at great cost; water-supply from distant sources has been secured, roads macadamised, town halls erected, parks and gardens laid out—the latter, indeed, being a very common provision—museums and libraries founded, and other like undertakings provided on no mean or inconsiderable scale. Personally I know of no colonial town of any standing which has

not its public park and public gardens, maintained at the public expense and for the public benefit.

This contrast between the present and the past might be pursued much further. The first settlers not only find a natural wilderness before them, but they have a social desert to encounter. They have neither schools for their children nor churches for their families. They have to be their own post-masters and post-carriers. They are remote from shops, stores, or other sources of household supply. They are out of the reach of masons, smiths, tailors, and other handicraftsmen. They are cut off from social intercourse, and in a great measure from mental sustenance. These are among the chief drawbacks of their condition as pioneers. But it is astonishing how soon, as their numbers increase, and their labours bear fruit, the settlers manage to supply their wants, and improve their position. Itinerant school-masters are followed by district schools. Pastoral visitations from house to house are succeeded by the erection of country churches. Branch post-offices are established. Stores are set up in outlying districts, and in course of time village communities gather around them. Mechanics settle down in the neighbourhood, and ply their callings. Families locate themselves around and form a social circle. With the increase of postal facilities, the operations of the newspaper-press expand, the local journals come more frequently and regularly, while book-clubs and libraries spring up for the satisfaction of their mental needs.

It would be far too wide a task to attempt to describe the educational systems in force throughout the colonies. They have no particular principle in common, nor is there much uniformity of any kind. Each government adopts its own plan, and where circumstances differ so materially there must necessarily be variance in action. In no case, however, is the education of the people wholly neglected by the State. In many colonies large sums of money are appropriated from the public revenues to this service. In some, government schools, directly maintained and controlled by the State, are established; in some, schools are merely subsidised, or teachers receive so much per head for every registered scholar; in some, education is left to denominational agency, and government aid is given without reference to sect; in some, and perhaps this is most general, a mixture of all these plans is in operation. I believe it may safely be said that, in every instance, government aid is given impartially to all, irrespective of creed or colour. A favourite principle is that of supplementing private contributions by a sum in a certain fixed proportion. In the older colonies, colleges and even universities have been formed for the education of the richer classes, although it is still a common practice, and will probably remain so, for parents who can afford it to send their children to Europe.

Naturally associated with this subject is the progress made by the press in the colonies. Perhaps in no respect has greater advancement been evident than in this. The first newspaper issued in a colony—and it is never long before one, or an apology for one, makes its appearance—is usually a literary curiosity, and ought to be enshrined as such in the museum of the country where it is published. Little better than a letter-sheet as to size, it exhibits a rare variety of type of all sizes and shapes; it generally bears some Johnsonian motto, and starts with the most grandiloquent assurances of the course it intends to pursue; it is not unfrequently printed upon blotting, brown, or coloured paper, for which apology is made on the score of delayed supplies; it chronicles beer of the smallest and thinnest body, and has generally a grievance with somebody or some power to combat. But, such as it is, it suffices for the immediate wants of the small and scattered community in whose behoof it is issued, and speedily improves and develops into a sheet that is at least on a par with the provincial journals of this country. In Australia the daily papers differ little from the London ones, while the *Australasian*, a Melbourne

weekly, may safely challenge comparison with any weekly throughout the world. That admirable journal is a more complete embodiment of matter suited to the tastes of everybody, than any that I am aware of published elsewhere. In the older colonies, a few illustrated periodicals are issued, but they are so far a less success than those of their contemporaries whose efforts are confined to letter-press. Comic publications are also common. Literature proper has not made so much advance, and is usually represented by pamphlets and works of a minor character. The time has hardly yet arrived for the outgrowth of authorship in its true sense, in communities that are still absorbed by the busy avocations of their new life. As yet, journalism affords a sufficient outlet for the literary aspirations of colonists, and if higher flights are essayed by them, the home press is preferred. It cannot, I think, be doubted that the influence of the newspaper-press in the colonies is of special value and utility, not merely as a medium for the expression of opinion, but as an educational agency, far-reaching in its operations, and ameliorating in its effects.

The claims of religion are not likely, I imagine, to be overlooked in any community of Anglo-Saxon origin. Throughout the colonies there is not only strong and active religious life, but there is, I believe, much progressive ecclesiastical energy. This is manifested in the many costly and beautiful edifices that are being and have been erected for purposes of worship by different religious bodies. In the early days the offices of the church are administered in the room of some settler's residence, lent willingly enough for the purpose. Then a simple and unpretending building will be set apart for the purpose, and in a few years more a church or a chapel, as the case may be, will be built. In many colonies the Christian minister has been the first representative of civilisation; the evangelist has preceded the farmer, the missionary has been the forerunner of the merchant. It must, I think, be satisfactory to my countrymen at home, who contribute so generously towards the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts, to know that in spite of the deadening influence of adverse circumstances, that attachment to the Christian faith, in all its multifarious varieties, which is happily a characteristic of our race, abides with the British colonist in the seclusion of his distant home, and must be as potent an influence in shaping the destinies of the colonial empire as it has been in directing the fortunes and moulding the character of this great patriarchal nation.

The colonies are not merely self-governed; they are almost wholly self-supporting. There are, I fear, too many people in this country who cherish the belief that the mother country, by which we mean the British taxpayer, is, to a great extent, burdened with the cost of governing these numerous dependencies. It was once said in this room, not many years ago, that the governors were paid by Great Britain. Were the first of these statements correct, a very large basis for just complaint would exist, but there is no foundation whatever for it. I cannot too emphatically assert that, in no one case that I know of, does the home government, except for some specific object, and with some definite reason, do more than meet the expense of such regular troops as may be stationed in the different colonies. Whatever the expenditure required for their internal government may be, the colonists meet it out of their own resources; and this is the case even in colonies where no representative institutions exist, and where the people who supply the requisite revenue have no control over its disbursement. As to the salaries of the governors, who are invariably appointed by and solely responsible to the Crown, they are as much part of the colonial expenditure, and therefore as much a charge upon the colonial revenue, as the salary of the lowest official. And although the home authorities please themselves entirely in the matter of these appointments, the colonial legislatures show usually

the most liberal disposition to vote emoluments fully proportioned to the dignity of the office. In two colonies at least the salaries of these functionaries were doubled, at the express instance of the local chambers.

Whatever the commercial progress of the colonies may have been, their progress in the art of raising and expending revenue has been in equal degree. Even in India, the revenue nearly doubled itself in 16 years, being now close upon £50,000,000. In 1850, the aggregate revenue raised by all the other colonies amounted only to £3,633,000. In 1866, the one colony of New South Wales raised and spent almost as much, and the aggregate of the whole expenditure of the several British colonies taken together went up to £18,250,000, having advanced more than fivefold. Of this amount Australia contributes £10,000,000, North America £3,500,000, the West Indies more than £1,250,000, Africa £1,000,000, and the Eastern Islands £2,000,000. The West Indies appear to have made, in this respect, the least progress, and the Australian colonies the most. The progress of expenditure may of course be measured by the state of the revenue, or *vice versa*, but, with a few exceptions, if the returns were taken literally, the colonies, in 1866, spent a little more than they raised. The ordinary sources of current revenue are, however, found inadequate to meet the wants of most of the colonies. So many public improvements are called for, railways, roads, and immigration make such pressing demands upon the exchequer, that the redundant capital of Europe is called into requisition, in the shape of loans advanced upon colonial debentures. In the year 1866, New South Wales alone raised and spent more than £1,000,000 in this manner, and, be it also observed, paid off more than £1,000,000 under the same head. In that year, India had a public debt of £98,000,000, Australia of £24,000,000, North America of £15,000,000, Mauritius of £1,000,000, South Africa of £1,000,000, the West Indies of £1,500,000, and other colonies of smaller amounts, making a sum total of £145,000,000, which are due to fundholders in this country, and upon which from five to six per cent. interest is annually paid by the colonists.

Although the revenues of the different European colonies, when reckoned against the population, appear to imply a heavy rate of taxation, ranging from £4 to £7 per head, the pressure is probably more easily borne than is a far lower average by the people of this country. In most cases from one-third to one-half the revenue is contributed indirectly, in the form of customs duties. This, in a new country, is a necessity. Property, in the true sense, has to be created. Land has to be made both productive and valuable. Industry has to be helped and nurtured, rather than crushed by premature burdens. By taxing the commodities of trade, the local governments replenish their exchequer in an easy and inexpensive way, and by means which are not felt by the people to be unduly burdensome. The colonial tariffs are continually being altered as circumstances change and as experience suggests, but the general character of them is more or less uniform. Except in the North American and some West Indian colonies, such questionable but popular luxuries as spirits, tobacco, beer, and wine are saddled with the heaviest duties. At Eastern ports the duty on spirits ranges from 5s. to 6s. per gallon. In Australia it is fixed at 10s. and 12s.; in South Africa at 6s. and 8s.; in North America from 1s. 4d. to 3s. 4d.; and in the West Indies from 1s. to 8s. Breadstuffs, books, and industrial appliances are usually admitted free.

The other sources of revenue are more numerous, and comprise land-rents and land-taxes, stamps, excise duties, tolls, and local rates. Direct taxes of all kinds are avoided as much as possible by the colonists. One of the great charms of colonial life, as regarded by many people, is its immunity from the visits of the tax-gatherer. People prefer to pay a trifle more for the articles of their daily consumption, or upon specific transactions which are

supposed to imply gain or profit of some kind on both sides, to being liable to direct calls upon their pockets. Nor are they entirely free from direct imposts of that description. In all colonies there are municipal charges in towns, and county rates in the country, to be met. And when you come to consider how varied and urgent are the requirements of a new settlement, where roads and bridges have to be made, streets paved and lighted, water secured, drains and sewers constructed, and police maintained, all by one and the same set of people, it is obvious that the scanty resources of colonial settlers must be strained to the utmost in their endeavours to satisfy these primary needs.

Having now, as far as time will admit, reviewed the chief elements of colonial progress, I cannot forbear devoting a brief space to a question of a more delicate and debatable character, one upon which great difference of opinion exists, I mean

#### THE WORTH OF HER COLONIES TO ENGLAND.

Upon this point, I wish it to be particularly understood that I speak as a colonist, as one accustomed by habit and association to look at the subject in a particular light, but at the same time as one who is well aware that his views will not probably be shared by many who hear him, and who is prepared to hear with all candour whatever arguments can be urged on the other side.

I have no hesitation in expressing my honest belief that England, in her colonies, possesses the truest and most lasting sources of national greatness, and the proudest pledges of moral and commercial pre-eminence that any land and people have yet enjoyed. I believe, moreover, that not only is this country bound, by all the solemn obligations that can bind a nation, to retain and to cherish her colonial possessions, but that it is on all accounts to her self-interest to do so.

As it is on grounds of commercial expediency that the converse of these propositions is affirmed, let us treat the question, in the first instance, strictly as one of gain or loss to the mother country. Tried by the favourite standard of the age—expressed in the symbols £ s. d.—how stands the account between the parent-land and her offspring?

In 1851, India and the colonies were customers of the United Kingdom to the extent of £20,000,000 worth of British goods, or something more than one-fourth of her whole export trade. In 1866, these possessions had increased their consumption of British manufactures three-fold, and out of the exports from the United Kingdom, that year amounting in round numbers to £188,000,000, £61,000,000, or one-third, went to her dependencies. Thus, so far from the colonies becoming worse customers of the mother-country as they advance in years and in self-productive power, they have, in 15 years, increased their proportion of trade by a very considerable percentage. In 1858, the colonies did as much business with Great Britain as the United States, France, Germany, Turkey, and Holland together.

But of even greater consequence in a national point of view than her export business is the import trade of the kingdom. The commodities she gets from her colonies are mostly raw materials, which give employment, in so many countless forms, to the labouring millions of her population and the vast capital of her manufacturers. British colonisation benefits the mother-country in two ways; it opens out new fields for the energy and industry of her sons, for the enterprise and wealth of her capitalists; but it also, by the extended production of raw staples, which that energy and that capital stimulate, quickens the industry of her toilers, and gives fresh and continuous vitality to her own manufacturing interests. How many hands are employed, how much capital and machinery is engaged in converting into marketable commodities the cotton, wool, flax, jute, sugar, timber, hides, spices, and other staples sent to the ports of the United Kingdom from her colonial possessions. These materials are the

life-blood of British commerce, and are pouring in year by year in a gradually dilating stream. In 1851, the total imports of Great Britain amounted to £142,000,000, of which only £20,000,000 came from her colonies. In 1866, this country's importations were estimated at £295,000,000, and of this amount £74,000,000 were colonial shipments. In fifteen years, therefore, England's importations from her colonies, as compared with the aggregate of her imports, have advanced from one-seventh to one-fourth. England therefore benefits commercially by her colonies thus:—They give, in the first place, fresh and wider fields for the reproductive outlay of her superfluous industry and capital. They open out boundless sources, whence the manufacturing and industrial needs of the mother-country may be supplied with these raw materials without which her commercial system would be paralysed; they keep at work those endless manufactures upon which so many millions depend for their subsistence; they increase the production of marketable commodities, and *thereby* give additional vitality and vigour to trade; they give employment yearly to British shipping (vessels, that is, belonging solely to owners in this country), which represent a tonnage of more than 20,000,000, that being, in round numbers, the aggregate tonnage, for 1866, of British vessels entered and cleared at colonial ports; and then they themselves become, in their turn, customers of the mother-country for the manufactured products, whose raw materials they supplied, to the extent of more than a third of her whole export trade. Finally, they offer openings for the investment of the redundant savings of this country, at higher rates of interest than are obtainable in like securities here; these openings being already taken up by British capital, to the extent of a hundred millions in India, and about fifty millions in the other colonies.

Against the arguments that as the colonies advance in population and in wealth they will become their own manufacturers, and thus cease to draw so largely upon the mother country, I put the fact that throughout these returns there is no retrogression, little fluctuation, and nothing but steady progress—progress, too, be it marked, in an advancing ratio. In point of fact, the colonies do not, as they get older, do less business with the United Kingdom. The tendency is distinctly the other way, and for very obvious reasons. The wants of all communities multiply as they advance in influence, in civilisation, and in refinement, and these wants are not likely, during any period to which we need now look forward, to be susceptible of home-supply. It has not been so in America, nor is it probable that it will be so in Australia, in India, or in Africa. The colonies will, for long years yet, have enough to do in supplying the old world with raw materials. That is their obvious function. They have the virgin soil, the boundless pasturelands, the unpeopled acres, which are required for the purposes of extended production. That the colonies are making progress in the arts of manufacture is undoubted, but it is not in a manner or to an extent likely to affect their commercial relations with this country. It pays them better, as a rule, to grow the raw stuff than to manipulate it. Take the case of sugar for instance. The latest discovery in connexion with that staple has for its object, not the manufacture of the perfect article by the grower, but the production of it in the crudest form, and at the cheapest cost, for the final operations of the home refiner. So far as we may venture to forecast the future there seems every probability that, as the colonies get more populous, more widely cultivated, more opulent, as their natural resources come to be better known and more fully developed—as their distant districts are brought into closer contact with ports of shipment by means of railways, and new centres of production are thus made available for purposes of export—their trade with England will make yet greater progress in years to come than it has done in the past, and, before long, rival and eventually outstrip the relative value of her foreign trade.

Another great substantial advantage which her colonial possessions secure to Great Britain is, that they provide adequate scope for the expansion of new industries, and the extended exercise of those mechanical and manufacturing capacities for which our race has become famous. In an old land like this, where every rood of ground is occupied, and all the avenues open to human enterprise and ingenuity are filled to excess, this lack of elbow-room would be a serious matter, were there not in all parts of the world fields for experiment and energy open to all comers, but not the less under the British flag. To a Society established like this for the promotion of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, a reference to this subject seems highly applicable. As the world grows older, its needs get more varied and imperious, and it is well that there are lands not yet broken-up, where new products may be discovered and old ones improved. There are many indigenous substances to be found in those distant regions, whose uses are so far slightly known, if known at all, but which may yet have an important part to play in the industry of future ages. Pastoral pursuits, too, can there be undertaken on a scale and under circumstances highly favourable to any movements that may be made to improve and to increase the insufficient meat-supply of European nations. Coal likewise exists in indefinite abundance throughout the southern as well as in the western hemisphere, and should the time come when the mines of this country cease to fulfil the requirements of the day, there will yet be—let us hope under British rule—vast coal mines untouched and unmeasured, to supplement, to relieve, or to take the place of the exhausted coal-beds of England.

Leaving the groundwork of material advantage, and rising to the higher level of national obligation and of moral gain, I think it can be shown that there are yet better reasons even than those I have named why England should set value upon her colonies. It is, I am aware, common in this age of materialistic thought, to exclude sentimental considerations from the bounds of political discussion. But where the action of our modern statesmen, in dealing with other questions, so signally belies the fashionable creed of the day, it may not be out of place, in treating of so strictly a national question as this, to take a broader platform than mere statistics can supply.

I hold that Great Britain is bound, by all the solemn obligations of honour, of good faith, and of self-respect, to retain her colonies so long as they remain loyal to her standard, and ask for no dissolution of the bond. Many of those dependencies she acquired by conquest, some she gained by cession; others she took possession of for purely Imperial purposes, in order to protect the natives from aggression, and advance civilisation in the world; while all of them, by the free exercise and full recognition of her authority during many years, she has constituted integral parts of her empire, and, as such, she cannot, without a breach of faith scarcely paralleled in history, get quit of her Imperial responsibilities in connection with them. This country has entered into a tacit covenant with every man who has gone to settle in those colonies; with every man who has invested money in them, on the strength of the fact that they were under British rule, and trusting in the security and order, of which the British flag, happily, is everywhere the guarantee.

It is argued that, as England has conferred upon the colonies the rights of self-government, they are bound to protect themselves, and that, if they are not prepared to do so, England would be better without than with them. This is a plausible, but a one-sided, and, I cannot but think, not very dignified argument. In leaving the colonies to govern themselves, England has pleased herself as much as them, and freed her statesmen from duties that were found to be both irksome and embarrassing. In giving them the management of their own affairs she has made no sacrifice, save that of an authority the discharge of which caused constant

trouble and complication. There is, too, a limit even to the fullest development of these self-governing powers. The Crown still retains in its hands the appointment of its governors, and enjoys, very properly, as fully as ever its power of veto, which is practically exercised by ministers who are responsible only to the people of the mother-country. No colonists object to these reasonable and constitutional checks, but they do, I submit, form a considerable modification of the principle of self-government as understood here.

As regards the matter of protection, it may, with some exceptions, be considered in the abstract, as in many of our principal colonies its practical bearings are unimportant. The Australian colonies have no elements of internal danger to guard against, and in New Zealand, until lately, the colonists seemed well enough pleased to have the natives left wholly to themselves. If England likes to abdicate her time-honoured function of looking after the aborigines, it is her business, and not that of colonists, to whom the Imperial policy in that matter has often proved harassing, and seemed to be shortsighted. In South Africa, where self government does not exist, and where the management of the natives is, as yet, entirely an imperial matter, where the native tribes are numerous and powerful beyond example in other colonies, and where the home government, by its policy in the past, has entailed upon the European communities the gravest political complications, there are special reasons why, for some time to come, a considerable Imperial garrison must be maintained there. Not that, even in that country, exposed as it is to peculiar dangers, the colonists depend very anxiously upon the protection of the mother-country. I suppose no colony is more delicately situated than Natal, where we find a European community of 17,000 souls, scattered over an area larger than that of Scotland, amongst a resident native population exceeding 200,000, and surrounded on three sides by still larger and more warlike native races. But in this community a small garrison of about 400 Imperial troops, has sufficed to keep the peace unbroken throughout a period of twenty-five years, and the colonists do not shrink from the responsibility of defending themselves, so far as their limited numbers and scanty means will enable them to do so. In these young settlements, however, every inhabitant may be said to be still striving for his daily bread; and I would merely ask whether it is wise or generous—whether it is a policy befitting a great, wealthy, and ancient nation, to impose upon feeble shoulders, however willing, the whole burden of responsibilities which would tax the capacities of states far older, far more populous than are they, and possessed of some measure of practical experience in military pursuits.

On one point, the colonies cannot, however, avoid almost entire dependence upon the mother-country—I mean as regards naval defence. Their need of that kind of protection springs almost wholly from their connexion with a great European power. As independent states, their obscurity, their distance, and their insignificance, would shield them from aggression by Northern powers. As vulnerable parts of a great empire, they present tempting inducements to attack. I rejoice to observe that this feature of their condition is so generously recognised, and seems likely to be so fully provided for by the ruling powers in this country. Comparatively speaking, but a small Imperial expenditure would, I believe, be required for this purpose.

Time fails me to set forth the other advantages which I humbly conceive that the mother country derives from her colonial possessions. I leave military authorities to say whether the command, in all parts of the world, of lands variously circumstanced, where troops can be garrisoned, exercised, trained to difference of climate, and practically versed in the art of warfare, be a benefit or not. I leave also unconsidered the question whether the standing army of the United Kingdom would be materially reduced were the garrisons withdrawn from

## TABLES OF COLONIAL STATISTICS, SHOWING THE PROGRESS MADE BY THE COLONIES BETWEEN THE YEARS 1852 AND 1866.

TABLE I.—AREA AND POPULATION.

POSSESSIONS.	AREA.	POPULATION.					
		1850.			1861.*		
		Sq. Miles.	Males. (1855) ..	Females. ..	Total. 123,931,369	Males. ..	Females. ..
India (British) .. ..	988,091	..	..	..	..	..	282,831†
Straits Settlements .. ..	1,095	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ceylon .. ..	24,700	825,603	749,950	1,575,553	975,117	917,423	1,892,540
Mauritius† .. ..	708	119,381	61,482	180,863	202,961	107,089	310,050
Labuan .. ..	45	1,030	120	1,150	1,672	701	2,373
Hong Kong .. ..	32	24,929	8,214	33,143	87,945	31,376	119,321
Australia :—							
New South Wales .. ..	323,437	154,575	110,928	265,503	202,099	156,179	358,278
Victoria .. ..	86,831	45,495	30,667	76,162	321,724	220,076	541,800
South Australia .. ..	383,328	35,302	27,737	63,039	65,048	61,782	126,830
Western Australia .. ..	978,000	3,576	2,310	5,886	9,852	5,839	15,691
Tasmania .. ..	26,215	..	..	..	49,593	40,384	89,977
New Zealand .. ..	106,259	(1851) 15,035	11,672	26,707	61,035	37,936	98,971
Queensland .. ..	678,000	(1860) 17,275	11,612	28,887	21,231	13,654	34,885
Total of Australia .. ..	2,582,070	..	..	..	730,582	535,850	1,266,432
Falkland Isles .. ..	7,600	304	129	433	352	214	566
Natal .. ..	16,145	46,892	73,735	120,627	71,999	80,705	252,704
Cape of Good Hope .. ..	200,610	141,609	143,670	285,279	..	..	267,096§
St. Helena .. ..	47	(1854) 3,584	2,679	6,263	3,774	3,086	6,860
Gold Coast .. ..	6,000	(1858) ..	..	151,346	..	..	..
Sierra Leone† .. ..	468	24,050	20,422	44,472	21,107	20,390	41,497
Gambia .. ..	21	2,687	2,164	4,851	3,985	2,954	6,939
North America :—							
Canada .. ..	331,280	(1852) 949,034	893,231	1,842,265	1,293,440	1,214,217	2,507,657
New Brunswick .. ..	27,037	(1851) 99,526	94,274	193,900	129,948	122,099	252,047
Nova Scotia .. ..	18,670	(1851) 137,677	138,440	276,117	165,584	165,273	330,857
Prince Edward Island .. ..	2,173	(1848) ..	..	62,449	40,880	39,977	80,857
Newfoundland .. ..	40,200	(1845) 52,274	44,232	96,506	64,268	58,370	122,638
British Columbia .. ..	200,000	..	..	..	7,862	3,954	11,816
Vancouver's Island .. ..	13,000	..	..	..	..	..	23,000
Total of North America .. ..	632,360	..	..	2,471,137	..	..	3,328,872
Bermuda .. ..	24	4,797	6,295	11,092	5,302	6,579	11,881
Honduras .. ..	13,500	..	..	..	13,789	11,846	25,635
West India Islands :—							
Bahamas .. ..	3,021	11,479	11,931	23,410	17,666	17,821	35,487
Turk's Island .. ..	..	..	..	..	2,128	2,224	4,372
Jamaica .. ..	6,400	(1844) 181,633	195,800	377,433	212,795	228,460	441,255
Virgin Islands .. ..	57	3,130	3,559	6,689	2,907	3,144	6,051
St. Christopher .. ..	103	10,523	12,654	23,177	11,437	13,003	24,440
Nevis .. ..	50	4,418	5,153	9,571	4,734	5,088	9,822
Antigua .. ..	183	16,722	19,456	36,178	17,060	20,065	37,125
Montserrat .. ..	47	3,336	4,019	7,355	3,447	4,198	7,645
Dominica .. ..	291	(1844) 10,596	11,624	22,220	11,830	13,235	25,065
St. Lucia .. ..	250	11,673	12,843	24,516	13,118	13,587	26,705
St. Vincent .. ..	131	13,957	16,171	30,128	15,005	16,750	31,755
Barbadoes .. ..	166	56,004	66,194	122,198	70,799	81,928	152,727
Grenada .. ..	133	13,732	15,195	28,927	15,413	16,487	31,900
Tobago .. ..	97	6,335	6,693	13,028	7,433	7,977	15,410
Trinidad .. ..	1,754	(1854) 35,631	32,969	68,600	46,074	38,364	84,438
Total of West India Islands .. ..	12,683	379,169	414,261	793,430	451,846	482,351	934,197
British Guiana .. ..	76,000	67,267	60,428	127,695	79,644	68,382	148,026
Gibraltar† .. ..	13	5,867	6,315	12,182	7,139	8,323	15,462
Malta† .. ..	115	64,139	61,660	125,799	67,477	68,862	136,339

\* The Return for 1866 is so incomplete that that for 1861 is given instead.

† Exclusive of the Military. ‡ In 1862. § In 1856. || In 1857.

TABLE II.—PUBLIC REVENUE AND PUBLIC DEBT.

POSSESSIONS.	Public Revenue.		Public Debt.	
	1852.	1866.	1852.	1866.
India (for years ended 30th April) .. ..	£ 27,832,237	£ 48,935,220	£ 55,114,693	£ 98,383,651
Straits Settlements .. ..	..	376,776*	..	..
Ceylon .. ..	411,806	962,874	..	450,000
Mauritius .. ..	311,854	639,577	..	1,000,000
Labuan .. ..	5,817	7,370	..	..
Hong Kong .. ..	21,331	160,226	..	15,625
Australia :—				
New South Wales .. ..	682,137	3,253,179*	212,000	6,418,030
Victoria .. ..	1,634,448	2,990,842	..	8,844,855
South Australia .. ..	243,174	975,180*	..	775,600†
Western Australia .. ..	37,022	89,383	..	..
Tasmania .. ..	181,079	313,832*	..	553,230
New Zealand .. ..	161,287	1,978,711*	..	5,435,729§
Queensland .. ..	..	592,969*	..	2,150,300
Total of Australia .. ..	2,939,147	10,194,096	..	24,177,744
Falkland Islands .. ..	6,524	9,024	..	..
Natal .. ..	29,650	156,883*	..	160,000
Cape of Good Hope* .. ..	288,942	732,298*	..	851,650
St. Helena .. ..	16,306	28,152	..	..
Gold Coast .. ..	5,147	..	..	..
Sierra Leone .. ..	27,034	62,263	823	..
Gambia .. ..	13,959	19,080	..	..
North America :—				
Canada (for years 1857 to 1863 ended 31st December, for years 1864–5–6 ended 30th June) .. ..	..	2,640,183	4,291,051	12,793,634
New Brunswick .. ..	111,134	298,494	..	1,249,174†
Nova Scotia (for years ended 30th Sept.) ..	113,962	307,477	..	971,706†
Prince Edward Island .. ..	20,856	63,629	5,960	120,599
Newfoundland .. ..	83,925	150,290*	111,712	202,018
British Columbia .. ..	..	90,586	..	223,078
Vancouver's Island* .. ..	..	88,894†	..	40,000†
Total of North America .. ..	..	3,639,553	..	15,070,169
Bermuda .. ..	16,120	26,638*	..	1,500
Honduras .. ..	13,480	27,334	..	..
West India Islands :—				
Bahamas .. ..	27,784	53,283	19,872	..
Turk's Island .. ..	..	16,335	..	..
Jamaica .. ..	236,964	334,140*	737,005	757,317
Virgin Islands .. ..	1,444	1,994*	5,570	..
St. Christopher .. ..	13,266	24,505	..	..
Nevis .. ..	3,601	7,015	9,600	3,600
Antigua .. ..	25,185	69,629*	78,940	47,655
Montserrat .. ..	3,196	5,325	..	3,920
Dominica .. ..	8,569	18,422*	..	9,620
St. Lucia .. ..	14,454	15,294	..	18,000
St. Vincent .. ..	17,241	21,240*	..	..
Barbadoes .. ..	59,363	103,935*	..	3,541
Grenada .. ..	17,366*	21,140	..	9,000
Tobago .. ..	7,819	9,815	17,740	1,534
Trinidad .. ..	107,310	226,218*	..	172,837
Total of West India Islands .. ..	543,562	928,290	..	1,027,024
British Guiana .. ..	218,014	304,817	..	660,646
Gibraltar .. ..	28,752	34,744	..	..
Malta .. ..	127,729	196,459	..	206,628

\* Including amounts raised by loans, &amp;c.

† For 1865, no return having been received for 1866.

‡ Exclusively loans for reproductive public works.

§ Including for Provincial Governments £236,000 in the year 1862, £689,750 in 1863, £769,450 in 1864, £1,351,400 in 1865, and £1,917,675 in 1866.

|| Direct funded debt less the amount held as a sinking fund for the redemption of a loan from the Imperial Government.



TABLE III.—TOTAL TONNAGE OF SHIPPING AND TONNAGE OF BRITISH VESSELS.

POSSESSIONS.	Tonnage of Shipping.		Tonnage of British Vessels.	
	1852.	1866.	1852.	1866.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
India (for years ended 30th April) .. .. .	1,591,937	4,160,356	..	3,323,584
Straits Settlements .. .. .	..	1,897,279*	..	1,090,965*
Ceylon .. .. .	537,817	1,182,325	..	1,032,194
Mauritius .. .. .	338,366	608,156	277,252	433,112
Labuan .. .. .	..	37,362	..	34,327
Hong Kong .. .. .	478,447	1,891,281	..	1,047,477
Australia:—				
New South Wales .. .. .	373,326	1,514,735	..	1,400,917
Victoria .. .. .	758,512	1,325,720	655,854	1,182,452
South Australia .. .. .	202,507	339,871	196,360	323,339
Western Australia .. .. .	49,352	113,736	41,369	85,786
Tasmania .. .. .	271,459	213,968	..	211,950
New Zealand .. .. .	112,149	637,282	55,778	597,539
Queensland .. .. .	..	393,656	..	386,516
Total of Australia .. .. .	1,767,305	4,538,968	..	4,188,499
Falkland Isles .. .. .	22,024†	80,573	..	47,983
Natal .. .. .	12,598	51,769	12,104	51,421
Cape of Good Hope .. .. .	463,764	478,937	375,345	399,338
St. Helena .. .. .	151,160	138,382	..	115,294
Gold Coast .. .. .	26,922	..	..	..
Sierra Leone .. .. .	59,763	96,099	34,483	74,841
Gambia .. .. .	59,462	55,416	10,301	15,743
North America:—				
Canada (for years 1852 to 1863 ended )				
31st December, for years 1854–5–6	1,142,301	1,803,643	977,718	1,603,135
ended 30th June) .. .. .				
New Brunswick .. .. .	1,120,808	1,859,577	..	1,287,600
Nova Scotia (for years ended 30th Sept.) ..	..	1,947,092	..	1,618,462†
Prince Edward Island .. .. .	27,928§	336,890	..	308,388
Newfoundland .. .. .	263,079	296,246	247,660	271,615
British Columbia .. .. .	..	119,397	..	94,015
Vancouver's Island .. .. .	..	313,064†	..	138,339†
Total of North America .. .. .	..	6,675,909	..	5,321,554
Bermuda .. .. .	60,720	98,614	..	83,534
Honduras .. .. .	48,840	48,581	..	25,620
West India Islands:—				
Bahamas .. .. .	83,533	121,950	..	79,636
Turk's Island .. .. .	..	114,558	..	63,954
Jamaica .. .. .	216,822	331,517	117,858	279,577
Virgin Islands .. .. .	8,266	8,085	..	8,085
St. Christopher .. .. .	39,290	64,474	..	51,447
Nevis .. .. .	..	17,272	..	11,634
Antigua .. .. .	..	58,062	..	55,079
Montserrat .. .. .	8,616	11,918	..	11,573
Dominica .. .. .	24,647	14,123	..	12,714
St. Lucia .. .. .	22,388	22,920	..	20,063
St. Vincent .. .. .	..	38,334	..	33,183
Barbadoes .. .. .	213,947	316,321	78,372	255,923
Grenada .. .. .	43,442	30,421	33,369	26,482
Tobago .. .. .	17,468	14,070	..	14,070
Trinidad .. .. .	126,054	281,304	79,980	194,363
Total of West India Islands .. .. .	..	1,445,329	..	1,117,783
British Guiana .. .. .	245,425	336,983	..	..
Gibraltar .. .. .	873,414	2,138,921	..	1,587,260
Malta .. .. .	1,064,730	2,369,314	..	253,210¶

\* Inclusive of the coasting trade.

† For 1865, no return having been received for 1866.

‡ Entered only.

§ Cleared only.

|| Sailing and steam vessels.

¶ Sailing vessels only.

TABLE IV.—TOTAL VALUE OF IMPORTS, AND IMPORTS FROM UNITED KINGDOM.\*

POSSESSIONS.	Value of Imports.		Imports from United Kingdom.	
	1852.	1866.	1852.	1866.
	£	£	£	£
India (for years ended 30th April) .. ..	17,292,549	56,156,529	10,267,743	24,912,617
Straits Settlements .. .. .	..	9,700,195	..	2,026,425
Ceylon .. .. .	1,642,170	4,961,061	246,438	1,390,687
Mauritius .. .. .	1,062,739	2,227,093	332,256	499,100
Labuan .. .. .	30,970	109,135	..	1,299
Hong Kong (No Returns) .. .. .	..	..	..	..
Australia :—				
New South Wales .. .. .	1,900,436	8,867,071	1,395,091	3,352,768
Victoria .. .. .	4,069,742	14,771,711	1,752,216	7,846,828
South Australia .. .. .	798,811	2,835,142	517,856	1,880,273
Western Australia .. .. .	97,304	251,907	65,477	143,521
Tasmania .. .. .	860,488	942,107	535,190	253,180
New Zealand .. .. .	359,444	5,894,863	204,132	2,737,702
Queensland .. .. .	..	2,467,907	..	742,884
Total of Australia .. .. .	8,086,225	36,030,708	4,469,962	16,957,156
Falkland Isles† .. .. .	16,132	20,948	..	20,948
Natal† .. .. .	103,701	263,305	45,695	189,299
Cape of Good Hope .. .. .	1,861,194	1,942,281	1,724,898	1,280,529
St. Helena .. .. .	..	112,506	..	63,656
Gold Coast† .. .. .	71,635	..	45,350	..
Sierra Leone† .. .. .	87,531	251,212	68,643	200,265
Gambia† .. .. .	110,174	108,189	45,190	64,825
North America :—				
Canada (for years 1852 to 1863 ended 31st December, for years 1864–5–6 ended 30th June)‡ .. .. .	4,168,457	11,208,816	2,192,698	6,040,527
New Brunswick† .. .. .	1,110,601	2,083,499	496,597	843,109
Nova Scotia (for years ended 30th Sept.)† ..	1,062,079	2,876,202	..	1,178,719
Prince Edward Island† .. .. .	171,971	444,746	47,265	219,843
Newfoundland† .. .. .	795,751	1,205,177	303,205	531,198
British Columbia† .. .. .	..	298,149	..	14,336
Vancouver's Island† .. .. .	..	594,297§	..	202,474§
Total of North America .. .. .	7,308,866	18,710,886	..	9,030,206
Bermuda† .. .. .	125,697	192,123	28,524	38,305
Honduras† .. .. .	202,112	169,033	109,695	107,734
West India Islands† :—				
Bahamas .. .. .	139,563	328,622	26,374	52,124
Turk's Island .. .. .	..	56,091	..	9,535
Jamaica .. .. .	837,894	1,030,796†	415,488	684,448†
Virgin Islands .. .. .	5,571	10,209	939	..
St. Christopher .. .. .	76,680	175,917	34,987	94,902
Nevis .. .. .	17,867	34,936	..	8,579
Antigua .. .. .	151,083	203,257	63,645	72,815
Montserrat .. .. .	9,354	18,685	89	1,032
Dominica .. .. .	53,054	62,188	20,368	25,941
St. Lucia .. .. .	81,001	91,504	38,509	31,715
St. Vincent .. .. .	167,079	158,158	83,185	61,500
Barbadoes .. .. .	767,974	988,082	489,232	379,725
Grenada .. .. .	149,718	122,255	73,049	52,115
Tobago .. .. .	53,529	57,645	17,441	23,481
Trinidad .. .. .	493,274	930,329	254,797	500,666
Total of West India Islands .. .. .	3,003,641	4,268,674	..	1,998,578
British Guiana† .. .. .	964,986	1,530,675	625,699	823,282
Gibraltar .. .. .	..	..	..	..
Malta† .. .. .	553,095	1,851,520	6,728	26,809

\* These returns are all inclusive of Bullion and Specie.

† The imports of Bullion and Specie are not specified in the returns from these Colonies.

‡ Imports for consumption.

§ For 1865, no return having been received for 1866.

TABLE V.—TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS, AND EXPORTS TO UNITED KINGDOM.\*

POSSESSIONS.	Value of Exports.		Exports to United Kingdom.	
	1852.	1866.	1852.	1866.
India (for years ended 30th April) .. .. .	£ 20,798,342	£ 67,656,475	£ 7,145,939	£ 43,397,640
Straits Settlements .. .. .	.. .. .	9,924,088	.. .. .	1,248,829
Ceylon .. .. .	1,350,670	3,586,454	704,293	2,385,126
Mauritius .. .. .	1,100,212	2,525,805	896,354	718,568
Labuan .. .. .	16,564	58,294†	.. .. .	.. .. .
Hong Kong (No Returns) .. .. .	.. .. .	.. .. .	.. .. .	.. .. .
<b>Australia:—</b>				
New South Wales .. .. .	4,604,034	8,512,214	3,607,269	3,162,615
Victoria .. .. .	7,451,549	12,889,546	6,198,433	6,754,536
South Australia .. .. .	1,787,741	2,858,737	1,257,294	1,155,866
Western Australia† .. .. .	24,181	152,240	16,751	103,732
Tasmania .. .. .	1,509,883	834,606	796,991	344,131
New Zealand .. .. .	145,972	4,520,074	40,458	1,713,062
Queensland .. .. .	.. .. .	1,366,491	.. .. .	321,939
<b>Total of Australia .. .. .</b>	<b>15,523,360</b>	<b>31,133,908</b>	<b>11,917,196</b>	<b>13,555,881</b>
Falkland Isles† .. .. .	8,300	21,780	.. .. .	21,780
Natal† .. .. .	27,846	203,402	2,799	128,093
Cape of Good Hope .. .. .	772,537	2,599,169	710,214	2,087,663
St. Helena .. .. .	18,250	11,653	15,962	5,261
Gold Coast† .. .. .	159,250	.. .. .	92,300	.. .. .
Sierra Leone .. .. .	117,760	259,719	47,717	73,874
Gambia† .. .. .	217,836	158,370	41,850	19,201
<b>North America:—</b>				
Canada (for years 1852 to 1863 ended 31st December, for years 1864–5–6 ended 30th June) .. .. .	3,145,399	11,735,079§	1,388,395	2,704,508**
New Brunswick .. .. .	796,335	1,327,855	602,295	620,715
Nova Scotia (for years ended 30th Sept.)† .. .. .	785,052	1,608,619	.. .. .	57,577
Prince Edward Island† .. .. .	106,256	246,816	16,468	118,609
Newfoundland† .. .. .	965,772	1,186,314	373,181	327,867
British Columbia† .. .. .	.. .. .	43,983	.. .. .	10,495
Vancouver's Island† .. .. .	.. .. .	120,254¶	.. .. .	26,804¶
<b>Total of North America .. .. .</b>	<b>5,798,814</b>	<b>16,268,920</b>	<b>.. .. .</b>	<b>3,866,575</b>
Bermuda† .. .. .	10,116	31,842	7,944	6,925
Honduras .. .. .	391,223†	277,156	340,908	169,013
<b>West India Islands†:—</b>				
Bahamas .. .. .	90,419	261,976	11,345	63,012
Turk's Island .. .. .	.. .. .	54,310	.. .. .	1,493
Jamaica .. .. .	927,377	1,152,898	733,271	971,080
Virgin Islands .. .. .	3,023	8,314	.. .. .	.. .. .
St. Christopher .. .. .	91,742	172,096	78,414	139,172
Nevis .. .. .	27,690	46,549	18,672	27,845
Antigua .. .. .	142,775	291,861	137,941	277,386
Montserrat .. .. .	7,388	19,898	50	12,866
Dominica .. .. .	52,236	106,452	42,535	92,883
St. Lucia .. .. .	57,211	109,483	46,553	98,789
St. Vincent .. .. .	204,995	194,175	178,930	183,690
Barbadoes .. .. .	951,726	1,246,844	783,801	817,980
Grenada .. .. .	131,940	113,237	113,999	98,688
Tobago .. .. .	56,831	69,872	56,503	63,471
Trinidad .. .. .	458,851	1,031,683	407,637	825,133
<b>Total of West India Islands .. .. .</b>	<b>3,204,204</b>	<b>4,879,648</b>	<b>2,609,651</b>	<b>3,673,388</b>
British Guiana† .. .. .	978,296	2,170,967	917,667	1,742,545
Gibraltar .. .. .	.. .. .	.. .. .	.. .. .	.. .. .
Malta† .. .. .	279,640	1,324,496	.. .. .	898,681

\* These Returns are all inclusive of Bullion and Specie.

† The exports of Bullion and Specie are not specified in the Returns from these Colonies.

‡ Returns incomplete.

§ Exports of domestic produce for the years 1852 to 1865.

|| Exclusive of gold, which in 1860 was estimated at £600,000, in 1864 at £1,200,000, in 1865 at £578,790, and in 1866 at £600,000.

¶ For 1865, no return having been received for 1866.

\*\* Exports of domestic produce.

the several colonial stations, and whether the Imperial exchequer would indeed be a gainer by the sum of £2,000,000, now expended upon the maintenance of these garrisons, were the colonies to be abandoned.

But I may speak of the moral gain secured to the people of this country by the existence of lesser Englands, where boundless opportunities of advancement are presented to every class of migrating people. Here, in this old and thickly-crowded land, it may be that men find it hard to stem the torrent of competition, or to rise to higher levels of social life or public usefulness. But there, in those fifty dependencies, openings abound for every kind of effort, and every grade of ambition. There, the farmer can acquire by slight outlay, and by indisputable title, breadths of soil that in Europe would almost make a small principality. There, the honest working man can live on his own freehold, and work his way on by rapid steps to a condition of honourable independence. There, the earnest youth who looks to public life as the proper field of patriotic aims, can find the object of his aspirations within ready reach. There, the distinctions may be less dazzling, the sphere of public recognition may be obscurer and less prominent, but the chances of attaining them are incomparably more abundant, and the influence exerted, when viewed in its bearing on the future that is now being shaped and foreshadowed, is, if anything, more direct and more enduring.

Surely, to a race impelled, as ours is, by its own natural instincts to go abroad, it is no slight privilege and advantage to have, in all zones, and by all seas, lands for its sons and daughters to occupy, where English institutions are established, where the English tongue is spoken, where the habits and customs of our race are reproduced, where the English principles of self-government can be gradually applied, and, perhaps, gradually extended; and where, under the English flag, freedom can be enjoyed without licence, and religion in its purest forms can be fostered, shielded, and upheld.

If we may venture to glance into the future, at a time when the future seems to unfold itself with such rare rapidity, I should say that the principle of confederation, which has received so much development during the last ten years, will in a few years have extended itself to the whole colonial empire of Great Britain. What has been achieved so successfully in Italy, in Germany, in the United States and in Canada, can hardly fail to be carried out in the case of the various groups of colonies that are bound together by natural and geographical affinities. I believe that, in the future, England will find herself the parent and head of six grand and compacted nationalities. Canada has already taken the step which has converted her once fragmentary settlements into a strong Dominion. New Zealand may be said to be already similarly consolidated. In Australia, in the East Indies, in South Africa, and the West Indies, the same process seems inevitable. Inevitable, that is, if, as I devoutly hope, nothing shall occur hereafter to sever the bond that gives to those communities the right to style themselves "British." What would happen were this severance effected—were these young states left in their immaturity to shift for themselves, were the controlling influence of the parent State to be suddenly withdrawn from them, I do not care to contemplate. Rather would I hope that it will be the policy of this great nation to preserve and consolidate, not to cast off and disown. Let the master statesmen of this country, who bring to their work minds trained by special education and long experience—gifts which few colonial legislators can in the nature of things possess—help the less privileged statesmen of these distant lands in the labour that lies before them of forming systems of government adapted to their needs, and defensive organisations suited to their capacities. Let no momentary impulse of economy lead to the hasty adoption of a policy which, while it would give but a trivial saving to the home taxpayer, would leave a lasting slur on the national honour, and entail endless mischief on the discarded community. Above

all, let it be considered whether the time is not coming, if it be not at hand, when the affairs of the empire must be dealt with on a larger scale and in a broader spirit than past experience prescribes, and when either by the addition of colonial representatives to the House of Commons, or, better still, by the creation of a Council of Empire, charged with responsibilities above and beyond those of a merely national or local character, there shall be established betwixt the mother-country and its self-governed dependencies a bond of union, formed not by force or law merely, but by the conjoint recognition of common interests, and by the combined representation, on an equal footing, of the local circumstances of each and all.

Other European nations, stirred by the invigorating sense of their new national unity and life, are seeking to find abroad lands where they may plant their nationality and reproduce their name. Is England—the great coloniser of the nineteenth century—to relinquish to these rival powers the function she has so worthily and so magnificently discharged? Is England to abandon her crowning mission—that of being the dispenser of Christianity and the minister of civilisation in the wild places of the earth? Is England—with her multitudes of struggling toilers, with her thousands of suffering poor—to withhold the wholesome influences of her tutelage from lands where there are room for countless homes, and work for hosts of busy hands? Let not the prospect of world-wide empire—moral no less than political—opened out to this our country by the Allwise Disposer of events, be blighted by a callous indifference, or an inadequate conception of what the empire truly is; but rather let us hope that old England shall, through the times that are to come, find herself the heart of a vast system of states, whose interests shall be her interests—and who shall say of Britain, in her ancient grandeur, as the Jewish maiden said of her mother in her afflicted age, "Thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God."

#### DISCUSSION.

Mr. HYDE CLARKE said he had listened with particular pleasure to the very able and deeply-interesting paper of his friend Mr. Robinson, and the more so because he saw before him an audience worthy of the subject, and which showed the growing interest of the public upon those questions in which the chairman, and other gentlemen had so long laboured without hitherto obtaining the attention they had deserved. After the great length to which Mr. Robinson had proceeded, and after the very able statement he had given of the condition and progress of the colonies, it would not be possible for anyone to enter much into detail, and therefore he would rather endeavour to make a few observations supplementary to what Mr. Robinson had said. He would first observe that in treating of colonial progress he had confined himself to so comparatively recent a period as rather to curtail our view of colonial history. He had only looked back about half a century, and within that period we had witnessed a very great advance in progress and prosperity. But he thought we must not omit, in the consideration of this subject, what had occurred in the preceding century, when we lost those great colonial possessions which now constituted the United States of America, which had been founded as English colonies a hundred years before. Therefore, in a whole review of this subject, we ought to consider that we had had to start afresh, as it were, with a new set of colonies. He thought, too, that Mr. Robinson had rather limited the extent of our empire in his paper. First of all, with regard to the area, he had left out the Hudson's Bay Territory, which was now about to be annexed to Canada, and of course when we came to compare our empire with other empires of the world, it was necessary that we should take into account the whole of our space, as

was done in Australia, with regard to the unoccupied land. And if we were to measure the extent of area with Russia, or with the United States for instance, of course we must bring everything into the balance. Then as regarded the extent of the population of our colonial empire, he should be disposed to include the population of other states, which, though not actually part of our colonies, were yet protected by our Government, and thus a more correct statement of the population would be obtained; as for instance in India, where, instead of its being given at 143 millions—if the protected territories were included—(because they were really more or less at the present moment under the English government, and must ultimately fall entirely under it), in that view India would have a population of at least 200 millions, and some would carry it even further. When, therefore, to these were added the other figures of our colonial empire, and when to this was added the population of these islands, we already had a population equivalent to about a quarter of the whole human race, according to the current estimate of a thousand millions; and if to these could be added the numbers of our kindred population in the United States, we might then mass together one of the greatest empires in the world. Even now, whether we regarded the population, the extent of area, or the amount of wealth, the empire of England stood second to none in the world. As regarded population, it came only after China, as to area only after Russia, though it now pressed Russia very closely since the large domain of Alaska had been united to the States, and those were considerations which should not be omitted when speaking of that important subject of our colonial empire, or our empire generally. We were too apt to restrict ourselves simply to these islands, and to this fault we were led from our early childhood, and our primary education tended to it, to the neglect of the consideration of those great colonies which constitute the mighty empire which the Chairman, and many others in the room, had been actively interested in and connected with during their lives. This was one great reason why our colonial empire had never been properly recognised, and that was why we found ourselves now in regard to this important question in our present anomalous position—one contrary to our own constitutional precedents. It was but a few years ago when, by a change in our policy towards the colonies, we separated them from us. We offered them absolute independence at the price of what was virtually a severance from the mother country. He was one of the few who, at that period, believed it to be a cardinal error, and events had since shown that it was so—events which were now bringing us back to a correction of that policy, and it might be that our former errors were assisting us to get into the right path. Thus Canada had built up a new confederation, and our colonial statesmen had begun to shadow forth that period when there would be a number of these, which would ultimately result in and constitute a congress of the whole empire. And what was that but the realisation of an idea long looked for by those who had been intimately connected with the colonies, and one known to the students of our colonial history;—what but the realisation of the project of union which was commenced by the great statesmen of nearly 200 years ago. The union of Scotland was not effected for fifty years from that time; the union of Ireland was deferred for 150, but ultimately they were brought about; and perhaps in the present day we might at length see the union of our whole empire accomplished, and men sitting in the Imperial Parliament as representatives of our colonies. If we looked at some of the figures Mr. Robinson had brought before the meeting, we should see the important bearing of those figures, and of the policy he (Mr. Clarke) advocated upon our present situation. Mr. Robinson, looking at it colonially, had sought to impose upon the mother-country great obligations, and had asked us not to sever our connection with the

colonies, and that we should entail upon ourselves considerable burdens for their defence, but he had not provided us with the means. He had asked us to look at the general interests of the colonies, which, from that point of view, were being more than ever regarded with anxiety. He had asked us to look at the question sentimentally, rather than from those real interests which ought to bind us up together. If we had dealt with our colonies as the United States did with California, in regard to the question of gold—if all had been united as a confederation—then out of the £18,000,000 of revenue some £6,000,000 would have gone into the Exchequer, and we should have had funds for the purposes of defence. He congratulated the meeting that they had met under such presidency, and that such an opportunity had occurred of considering the important question thus brought before them under circumstances so favourable to its discussion, and by one so well able to treat it as Mr. Robinson. It was but two or three evenings ago that he had an opportunity of hearing him upon another question—the social aspects of colonisation. He referred then to the opportunities that colonisation gave to the humblest to elevate himself in the social scale, and stated that the effect of emigration was to elevate the whole of the population. But if that was the effect on the lowest classes, those circumstances were much more favourable to the middle classes of our population when such opportunities were afforded for the display of ability and the acquirement of a practical acquaintance with all the departments of public life. He could not but be struck with the fact that Mr. Robinson had had the opportunity, in consequence of his colonial career, of acquiring a degree of parliamentary and political experience which he could hardly have had at home, and of moving about the world in such a way as to obtain greater knowledge of mankind than he could have had here, and which in the future he trusted would not only be of the greatest benefit to our colonial communities, but an advantage to the imperial power.

Mr. P. L. SIMMONDS said it was a happy termination of the session of the Society to close with a paper on so important a subject as the progress of the British colonies, by a gentleman well able to deal with it, and presided over as the meeting was by so eminent a colonial ruler and statesman. Mr. Robinson was specially fitted to handle the topic he had dealt with, from his great experience as a colonist, as a journalist (being the editor and proprietor of an influential colonial newspaper, which he conducted with great ability), and as a legislator (being a member of the Legislative Council in Natal). Although located in a comparatively small colony, the comprehensive view he had taken of British colonisation, and all its contingent features in every part of the globe, showed that he had made the subject his special study. Only those who had attempted to deal with the comprehensive statistical details scattered over so many channels could form any adequate idea of the vast amount of research necessary to bring together and to reason upon figures embracing such a wide range. The important facts and arguments advanced were all the more valuable as replying fully to statements which had been brought forward in that room by gentlemen of the Manchester school of politics, impugning the utility of colonies to this country. Such a mass of useful information had been compressed into Mr. Robinson's paper, much of which he had necessarily to pass over in reading it briefly, that few present had been able to give it that calm consideration which its merits deserved. But it was after publication in extenso, in the Society's *Journal*, that its importance would become apparent, when it would be widely diffused and quoted from, and commented on by the members and others, through the length and breadth of the land, as well as far and wide on the Continent of Europe, where the *Journal* circulated. The matters set forth in this paper showed that we might well be proud of our colonies. The British race were,

after all, the only true colonisers. Other nations might found colonies, but few maintained them, or made any progress. The French, Spanish, or Dutch, had little to boast of or point to in successful colonisation. Mr. Robinson had done well to commence his record of the progress of the British colonies with the period before the gold discoveries and the first International Exhibition, for it was really since that date that they had made and maintained those gigantic strides in commercial progress which had drawn upon them the attention of Europe. With respect to the omission of area of territory and population of protected states in India and elsewhere, alluded to by Mr. Clarke, the figures of the inquiry might well be limited to colonies proper, without stretching into the boundaries of Arctic or Asiatic countries, which could never be settled by colonies of the Anglo-Saxon race. The progress of the arts, manufactures, and commerce in most of our principal colonies had been well represented at all the great international exhibitions at London, Dublin, and Paris, where the products and articles shown attracted general attention, and commanded the highest awards of the jurors. More especially was this the case with the display made by the British colonies at Paris, where the wonderful advance made in all points was remarkable. Not only were raw materials, natural history, and manufactures well represented, but even in the fine arts, where less was to be expected from them, there was high ground for the commendations passed on the paintings and photographs from Canada, Victoria, New South Wales, Adelaide, and other colonies. At present our colonies were the mainstay of the supply of the principal raw materials for our great industries in wool, cotton, hides, &c.; and they would, ere long, furnish us with most of our flax and silk. They were also becoming great food producers and exporters of grain, meat, and colonial produce. Another point had been hinted at, that there were undeveloped resources in indigenous wealth and untried raw materials, which would some day come in to the aid of the wants of the mother country. With intelligent naturalists and skilled botanists, and experienced geologists at work, in nearly all, beneficial results must ensue. As one who had given some attention to colonial subjects, and who had been closely identified with their products and manufactures, and had had ocular evidence of their varied products at these several Great Exhibitions, and being also pretty well informed on all their statistics, he might be permitted to express heartily the great pleasure it had afforded him to listen to the very comprehensive and able paper with which Mr. Robinson had favoured the Society.

Mr. Botly said they must all feel indebted to Mr. Robinson for the admirable paper which had been read. He had stated that in the colonies, by a slight outlay and by personal exertion, an indisputable title might be gained to a breadth of soil almost as large as a small principality. He (Mr. Botly) could confirm this from several instances which came under his own knowledge, of persons who had emigrated with their families, and had taken high positions in the colonies, such as they never could have aspired to in this country. He mentioned this to show that a spirit of enterprise, such as that mentioned in the very excellent paper they had heard, was that which would increase the prosperity of the colonies, and benefit our redundant population.

The CHAIRMAN said that it now became his agreeable duty to propose that the thanks of the meeting be given to Mr. Robinson for the very able and deeply interesting paper which they had heard, and, with their permission, he would avail himself of the opportunity to say a few words on the paper, which related to a subject in which, in point of fact, he had almost from his childhood taken the deepest interest. He would allude to one or two points which, he thought, Mr. Robinson had not, perhaps, quite sufficiently brought forward. One point which was altogether overlooked in this country was this—that at the present moment England was, to a

certain extent the arbiter of the destinies of a large portion of mankind. In this respect, if Great Britain were to renounce her control over all her colonies, or if she were to allow them, or encourage them unadvisedly, to separate from the mother country, the gravest difficulties would unquestionably take place between a large number of these colonies. The most delicate points would arise, such as the question of boundaries, the collection of customs duties, and other matters of a similar kind. With regard to those boundaries, it would be almost inevitable that within a very short period of time difficulties, perhaps ending in war, must arise between Victoria and New South Wales, Queensland and South Australia. Other colonies probably would be dragged into similar difficulties. At present every one of those colonies unhesitatingly and cheerfully submitted to the decision of Great Britain upon any such question. In point of fact, if England were to allow such a thing, and wars of that kind were to prevail, it would be permitting the human race to go backward instead of forward; it would be allowing her own commerce to be injured, and entailing great calamities upon herself as well as upon the rest of mankind. Then the question with regard to the expense of keeping troops in the colonies had been very much overrated in England. In point of fact, British troops in the colonies cost Great Britain much less than they would if they were all assembled in England. Provisions were cheaper in the colonies, clothing was cheaper, and barracks were now ready, or nearly ready, and in a thousand ways the colonies helped to relieve Great Britain of a large portion of the military expenditure of the nation. Another important question was this, that the British troops, employed, as they were, in various parts of the world, were trained in every kind of discipline, and prepared for every duty they might have to undertake. British regiments might have been seen in South Africa, for instance, marched off to the most distant portions of our African settlements, perhaps a thousand miles from Cape Town, taking a measured pace, the same number of inches to the step, and steps to the minute, undergoing the severest training, and all this tending ultimately to support British rule in India, at a moment when it appeared to be on the point of annihilation. That man would be a bold one who would say that it was not this training which enabled them to discharge their duties in a manner which they could not have done if they had been simply trained in garrison towns at home. Our troops were distributed throughout the world in such a manner as to enable a force to be at once collected at any threatened point. Then there was this further point to be considered. Would any one say, if the whole British army was withdrawn from the colonies into Great Britain, that we should submit patiently and quietly to such an unconstitutional proceeding as to find some hundred thousand troops permanently quartered in the country? He believed a cry would be raised that the army should be reduced, and if it were reduced, it would be difficult to create it again when the necessity arose. The confederation in Canada had been alluded to. He would just mention that the very first confederation took place in New Zealand, in the year 1848 or 1849, and was entirely devised by himself and friends of his. They got British statesmen to listen favourably to the proposal, and in fact the speech then made by the Secretary of State in Parliament embodied the substance of a despatch written by himself in New Zealand. That proposal obtained the acquiescence of Parliament, and the principle was afterwards extended to Canada. In devising that plan they believed it would be ultimately possible to unite the whole English speaking race into one great and mighty confederation, each colony having a Congress of its own, each preserving its own institutions. In such a confederation each might have its own difficulties adjusted, and by their united power they might prevent the necessity of going to war, and thus practically give the law to mankind throughout the whole habitable globe. In

such a Congress as that he believed that every one of the colonies would gladly contribute their help to the expense of the requisite army and navy. One other point he would just touch upon, and that was, that a home was offered in the colonies to the discontented population which, in a country like ours, was always found. There were always large numbers dissatisfied with the existing state of things, and those individuals, cooped up within an island like our own, must ultimately be the cause of disturbances, whereas a home was offered to them in the colonies, and an opportunity for the display of their energies. Then it might be said, with reference to Canada, that if we gave up our colonies such persons would pass to the United States, and with the present feeling of the United States towards Great Britain, which he feared would increase, he believed that by sending such persons to the United States, instead of encouraging them to go to the colonies, great trouble would be caused to England hereafter. Then, with reference to the government of the colonies, every man had been allowed a share in the government of the country he had gone to, and everybody who had witnessed the result of that could not fail to agree that it was possible thus to raise up as loyal a population as any in the world. As to the results which Mr. Robinson had spoken of, of the colonies affording an opportunity of acquiring statesmanship, he would refer to the case of Mr. Robinson himself, who went to Natal when he was eleven years old, was there educated, and from the advantages he there received had achieved so high a position. In his own experience he could name a large number of persons who had become governors, and a still larger number who had become distinguished judges of colonial courts, and barristers in large practice, realising fortunes they never could have gained in England. The number of legislators and of statesmen administering public affairs satisfactorily, he might say eminently well, in the colonies was very great, many of them springing from what would here be called the lower orders, none of whom could have obtained the high position they had were it not for the colonies; and he felt convinced that all this must have been reflected back on England, and must have benefited her in proportion. With these few remarks he would propose a cordial vote of thanks to Mr. Robinson for his most able and interesting paper, evincing as it did a deep knowledge of the subject.

The motion was carried unanimously.

Mr. ROBINSON said that he felt it extremely difficult to express the feelings he entertained at that moment, and his deep sense of the kind and altogether too complimentary manner in which his paper had been received. It was true that its preparation had been to him a labour of love, because he had long looked forward to such a meeting as that, affording him an opportunity of putting before so influential a Society, representing as it did so important a section of his countrymen, the facts which were so little known with regard to our colonial possessions. He might perhaps be permitted to say that he quite coincided with what Mr. Hyde Clarke suggested with reference to the justice of including in any calculation the territories under British protection. In an article he published a month ago, he did include them within the estimate then given, but he thought that in preparing this paper it was highly desirable to fortify himself by figures which were contained in Parliamentary papers, and about the authenticity of which there could be no doubt whatever. With reference to the remark as to the expediency of establishing some kind of confederation, under which the colonies should contribute something towards the Imperial fund, which should be appropriated to their defence, he believed there would be none who would not be willing to contribute to such a fund, but, at the same time, he thought that, in the case of certain of them, it would be quite impossible for them to contribute more than they did towards the expenses of local government. It had given him the greatest possible

pleasure to listen to the enlightened and admirable remarks of Sir George Grey, whom he had known, in a public capacity in South Africa, for so many years. He could only say that the experience in South Africa of his administration was such as to make them all anxious to receive him again. He believed there was no better authority on this important subject, and as to the concluding idea which he threw out with regard to the importance of consolidating in one grand union all English speaking men throughout the globe, it seemed to be a magnificent conception if only the people of this country would rise to a larger and fuller appreciation of what the colonial empire was. If in any of the remarks which he had made a somewhat dogmatical tone had been assumed, or opinions expressed in too emphatic a manner, he could only regret that it should be so, but it was a subject upon which he felt very warmly. He thought that the interest of the mother country in the colonies would be found to be a growing one, and that at some day in the future—and, probably, nearer than many imagined—the idea of a grand confederation of English speaking states would be carried out, and that our country would then be in a position to be the arbiter of the destinies of the world.

Professor TENNANT exhibited diamonds from the Cape, with diagrams of the crystalline forms, also a chart of the diamond district near Hope Town, and a number of rock specimens sent by Dr. Atherstone and Mr. Green, civil commissioner, Colesberg. Rich specimens of cinabar, recently found in Borneo, were also shown.

#### ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATIONAL FUNDS —PENSIONS TO AGED SCHOOL TEACHERS.

On Saturday, the 8th inst., Earl de Grey and the Right Hon. W. E. Forster received a numerous deputation of school teachers, of Dissenters as well as of the Church of England, to present memorials from all parts of the country in favour of a scheme for granting annuities to aged teachers. The memorials were in the following terms:—

"Your memorialists venture respectfully to submit that the establishment by government of a fund, out of which retiring pensions or annuities could be granted to teachers, after a certain length of service, would not only be a great boon to teachers as a body, but would be conducive to the improvement of education generally. They think, also, that such a fund might be maintained by a small per-centage, deducted from all grants to schools and training colleges. They would also submit that, except in special cases, no annuity should be granted to any teacher who has not taught twenty years in an elementary school under government inspection. Your memorialists think also that the amount of the annuity should depend upon length of service, but that a service of thirty years should entitle a teacher to the maximum annuity granted."

The deputation was introduced by Mr. Akroyd, M.P., and by Mr. Whitwell, M.P., who referred to Mr. Chadwick to speak generally on the subject, from the special consideration he had given to elementary education.

Mr. EDWIN CHADWICK—In supporting the proposition in the memorial, it is impossible to overlook the fact that it is opposed to a policy which has recently been adopted in this Department, of entirely ignoring all official connection with the school-teacher, all concern as to his status, and leaving him entirely to the care of irresponsible and changing school-managers. But it is a duty to submit that, to the continuance of that or the like policy, there stands opposed disastrous experience, attested by school inspectors, of the wide-spread desertion to less discouraging conditions of the most valuable skilled elementary teachers, reductions of the numbers of pupil teachers, ruinous to the training colleges, a reduction of the quality of the supply of service, and injury to the quality of the teaching of the children of the wage-



classes of the country. Anyone who has studied educational administration, who has visited schools, and observed various modes of teaching, and traced the outcome of schools, will have observed that the subject matters of instruction being much alike, there is often the greatest difference of result, and he will be deeply impressed, as I have been, with the aphorism, that "as is the teacher, so is the school," and would be anxiously concerned at the reckless ignorance of a policy of discouragement, and would feel the need of an opposite policy of encouragement, to obtain the best manner of men practicable for raising the lowest of the population. Looking at the qualities desirable and necessary in teachers, and knowing the prices obtainable for those same qualities in the open labour-market, it will be perceived that, at the very best, educational administration is put to a serious disadvantage to obtain fitting teachers. Now, in my experience of local administration, security of position and freedom from worry during good behaviour, are cheap means of obtaining good service at a lower price than it would otherwise be obtained for the public. I have known men give up private service, and the conflict of the open labour-market, and take the public positions at one-third less of salary, for the sake of the comparative independence of the public status, and that, too, without any dereliction of the principle of complete responsibility to a competent and impartial authority. I proposed this principle as applied to poor-law administration, and so far as it has been adopted—and it has been adopted so far as relates to the independence of their position during good behaviour, leaving the question of retiring pensions, which I expect will eventually have to be conceded—it has produced a large number of officers well qualified to undertake, with advantage to the public, the chief responsibility of executive action. Entire dependence on changing school-managers, commonly unlearned in teaching, and often incompetent, and mostly irresponsible, is to many minds a very repulsive condition. School teachers may take a position under school managers, where there will often be zeal, if it be without skill or competency to deal with the subject. But much of the lukewarmness and some opposition to the Scotch Parochial Schools Bill is due to uncertainty, such as that which prevails here amongst schoolmasters, as to their position under it, and to a repugnance to the vestral element in the local boards, the members of which may be destitute of zeal, as well as of skill or competency to judge of service. Some opposition to the proposal of school rates arises from the feeling that under such local authority, as it is apprehended the provision for rating may bring, the teachers will be even worse off than they now are. Securities may be provided to relieve them from that ground of apprehension. The measure now proposed by the memorialists would, I submit, cost nothing to the Government but its superintendence. The acceptance of the measure would be a return to a policy of justice and security, and of encouragement to competent school teachers, which I have profound conviction is necessary to be pursued for the advancement of the elementary education of the people.

MR. LAWSON, the secretary of the London Association of Church Schoolmasters, stated that a detailed scheme drawn up by Mr. Hill, the master of the British Schools at Kendal, estimated that a deduction of one per cent. from the annual government grants would provide pensions of £30 a-year each for about 200 disabled teachers, which was a larger number than was likely to require them, at all events, at present.

MR. MANSFIELD, the Secretary of the Wesleyan Training College, having spoken,

MR. DAY presented a memorial from the north-eastern district, and other members of the deputation handed in similar memorials from other localities.

In reply to questions put by EARL DE GREY AND RIPON and MR. FORSTER, it was stated that the teachers did not

contemplate any claim to pension until after twenty years' service in one or more elementary schools, and were prepared to sacrifice the slight deduction that might be made from their salaries during service if the full period of twenty years should not be completed. It was anticipated that the number of claims would for some years be so limited that a reserve might be formed out of the surplus sufficient to provide amply for any increase that might arise hereafter.

MR. FORSTER asked the schoolmasters whether they thought it likely that managers would reduce their salaries by the amount of the pension? In answer, the deputation stated that some might, but not many.

MR. FORSTER next asked whether, if such reductions were made, they would nevertheless desire this measure. The unanimous answer given was that they would.

EARL DE GREY could not hold out any hope that this question would be taken up separately from that of education generally, in respect to which the views of the government would, he hoped, be laid before Parliament next year. He, however, promised, on behalf of himself and his right hon. friend, the Vice-President, the most careful consideration of the representations made to them by the memorialists and the gentlemen who had addressed them. The deputation, having thanked his lordship, withdrew.

#### EDUCATION IN PRUSSIA.

The following letter appeared in the *Times* of the 19th inst. :—

SIR,—There exists in Prussia, as well as in England, a law which exposes parents or guardians who neglect the bodily wants of their children to punishment; but as domestic animals likewise are protected by law against starvation or ill-treatment, the legislators of Prussia, thinking that a child is superior to a cow or a horse, added that not only the body but the mind likewise must be cared for, and if a neglect of the former can be punished, it naturally followed that neglect of the latter was punishable too. The so-called "compulsory education" in Prussia is, therefore, as little an interference with the liberty of individuals as the law which forbids a child to be starved. But it must be said, for the honour of humanity, that parents will not wait for the compulsion of law before giving their children food, and they are only too glad in Prussia to avail themselves of opportunities for educating their offspring, if the means be placed within their reach. Parents who are so unnatural as to neglect the culture of mind or body are criminals, and deserve the severest punishment. The laws of civilised nations do not leave parents at liberty to starve their children, nor do they provide cheaper food or clothing; but the Prussian legislators very properly aid them in obeying the law to provide education, by bringing it to the door of the lowest cottager by making it cheap. The law is, then, that every town, or community in town or country, must maintain a school supported by the taxes, and administered by the local authorities, who are elected by the citizens, and called Aldermen or Town Councillors.

All parents are compelled to send their children to one of these so-called elementary schools, whether they can pay the charge of a penny a-week in villages, or a shilling per month in towns, or not. This money goes towards maintaining the schools, and any deficiency is made up from the local taxes. No compulsion exists in reference to a higher educational institution than elementary schools, but parents who send more than one child to any school supported by the community have a reduction made in the charge, and a limited number of pupils, whose parents cannot afford to pay the full rate, enjoy either this reduction or are admitted entirely free, at the discretion of the authorities. Thus the higher schools, as the commercial, or colleges, are not established merely for the rich, but are likewise open to the poorest, the fee being 15s. a-quarter, terms not too high for a well-to-do artisan, while reductions are made, as before,

to large families or poor persons who cannot afford to pay the full sum.

The Prussian schools are divided as follows—firstly, elementary, embracing village or town schools; secondly, higher-citizen schools; thirdly, real school, or one where languages, arts, and sciences are taught; fourthly, seminaries, or one for training elementary schoolmasters; fifthly, colleges; sixthly, industrial; seventhly, school of architects; eighth, mines; ninth, agricultural; tenth, veterinary; and eleventh, the university.

The difference between the elementary schools of the villages and those of towns consists in the greater variety of subjects. In the former, reading and writing in German characters are taught, with geography and history of Germany, and the four first rules of arithmetic; in the latter, writing in Roman characters, general geography, history of the world, fractions, rule of three, and the chain-rule are added.

The higher-citizen schools, adapted for the wants of tradespeople, teach likewise mathematics, Latin, and French, to a certain extent. The real school is divided, like the colleges, into six or seven classes, and every pupil must pass an examination before rising to another class. No pupil can belong to one class in one subject, and to another in a higher one, but must in all subjects be in one and the same class. The proficiency is decided by the number of errors made, and not by value of points, as in England, which is a gross deception, as a student may get 800 out of 2,000 marks allotted to any subject, which may sound very satisfactory to his friends, who learn that he has passed with 1,200 marks in that branch, but none but those behind the scenes know what a large number of gross mistakes have been made. The last examination at the real school and college corresponds to the university B.A. examination, but gives no right in Prussia to a degree. With this examination the general education ends, and the study of the profession chosen by the student then commences. The B.A. examination at college alone entitles one to enter as a student at the Universities; the same test at the real school does not give that right.

Latin and Greek are more taught at the college than at the real school, while the living languages, chemistry, and natural philosophy are the more prevalent branches of instruction at the latter. Those who have passed the B.A. examination at the real school can afterwards go into the industrial schools,—i.e., engineering, telegraphing, &c., or to those of architecture, or veterinary art, or become chemists or apothecaries.

They who have passed the B.A. examination at the college can enter the mining, coal, salt, or metal offices, or go into the Post or Custom departments, with the right of promotion in turn, as these appointments are confined to those who have passed that examination. Those who wish to study philosophy, medicine, law, philology, theology, &c., must go to the University.

The English Universities correspond nearly with the German college, as any institution like the German university is unknown in England. Every German student has already passed, when entering his university, an examination equal to the English B.A., conferred only at the close of the academic course. Every student must study philosophy for one year, and pass an examination called the Philosophicum, after which he attends only the lectures of his particular branch of study. There exists a doctor's examination in every branch, though students of law or divinity are not compelled to pass it, while those of philosophy, philology, or medicine must do so. The doctor's diploma is the only degree conferred by the university, but does not give a right to practise as a medical man, for which another, called the State examination, is required. The studies at the university last about four years, at an expense of £15 a-year for the lectures. No student lives in the university, which is used solely for lectures. The universities are maintained and administered by the government, while all the other scholastic institutions are

supported by the community under control of government; thus a uniform system of education is insured. Poor students can have the expenses of the lectures debited to them, to be repaid when they are employed in any remunerative work. There are, likewise, *stipendia*, or assistance in money, attached to each university, left by charitable people for needy students, and administered according to the condition of the will. No student who is able to pay can receive a *stipendium*, therefore no Fellowships exist in Germany as they do in England. The teachers at the elementary schools are educated at the seminaries, to which schools are attached where they can instruct children, and are thus practically initiated into the art of teaching and of maintaining proper discipline. They are then "certificated," as in England. The teachers of the higher educational establishments are doctors of philosophy or philology, and each takes only that branch in which he has passed his best examination, which his certificate declares. No one can be a teacher in any public school without passing the requisite examination, and possessing the necessary certificate. Private schools can only be kept by licensed and duly-authorised persons; these never give a higher education than the "citizen school," and are generally merely elementary. Governesses at young ladies' schools must likewise have passed an examination, without which they dare not teach anything except needlework, or the German language to foreigners. The governess's examination is not confined merely to that class which has chosen teaching as a profession, but the daughters of the best families are as proud of having passed it as their brothers are of having obtained their doctor's degree.

I am, &c.,

A PRUSSIAN.

## Fine Arts.

INGRES MUSEUM AT MONTAUBAN.—The museum at Montauban, the birthplace of the late painter Ingres, was opened to the public on the 17th of the past month of April. In one room is exhibited the last production of the late artist's pencil, "Christ amongst the Doctors." Another room contains sculptures by the father of the painter, and also the personal relics of the latter, such as his bureau, arm-chair, palette, colour-box, easel, books, violin, and portraits of his family and friends. Nine hundred drawings and sketches, selected from three thousand bequeathed to the museum by the late artist, are exhibited in two rooms, in order to illustrate the growth and complete development of his talent. In the same rooms are glass cases, containing models in terra-cotta, medals, engravings, Greek vases, and other objects of art; while another room is devoted to sculpture and curiosities, the gem of the collection being the statue of "Cupid," attributed by Visconti to Praxiteles, and presented to the museum by Ingres. Few artists have had such a monument raised to them by their contemporaries as the Ingres Museum of Montauban.

## Manufactures.

SUGAR FOR BREWING.—The *Produce Markets Review* says:—"We are informed that the Excise authorities are again making difficulties about the use of concrete (or brewers' bastards) by the brewers. We presume that this is done to pacify the farmers and maltsters, but it is really time to protest against the sacrifice of one branch of trade to another, because it happens to be a powerful interest. The restrictions on the use of sugar in breweries, and the prohibition of the use of molasses for brewing, are simply a disguised protection to the barley growers; and now that the duty on foreign corn is to be repealed, a little activity on the refiners' part would perhaps obtain

them more favourable terms. We are at a loss to know why foreign molasses should be prohibited for brewing purposes, for the question of the duty to be added to put it on an equal footing with malt is a mere question of detail. With regard to refiners' treacle, no question of the kind ought to arise, as it is the refuse of sugar which has paid the full duty, and ought, therefore, to be treated in the brewery simply as sugar, and charged the extra rate of 3s. 8d. only. Molasses must clearly be a worse substance than sugar for brewing, as it contains so much moisture, and it seems illogical to prohibit the use of the weaker material while that of the stronger is allowed. The objections to brewers' concrete on the part of the Excise arise from the proportion of molasses it contains, but the concrete is clearly sugar, as it is assessed at the Custom-house at the 8s. duty, and the Act, we are told, simply prescribes the use of molasses. The Excise authorities, however, will not allow to be used in refineries any concrete which does not contain fifty-seven of what they call 'crystallised sugar.' It would be well for the refiners to ascertain by what law this restriction is enforced."

### Commerce.

**SOAP AND CANDLES IN HOLLAND.**—There are in Holland about 36 soap manufactories, viz., two at Breda, each producing annually 10,000 kilos. of hard soap, and 200,000 of soft or green soap; four at Amsterdam, producing yearly 121,000 kilos. of hard and 1,000,000 kilos. of soft soap; one at Enkhizen, producing 50,000 kilos. of soft soap, and one at Hoorn, producing 109,000 kilos. of soft soap. At Amsterdam there is a candle factory which ships annually 12,000,000 of candles, 300,000 kilos. of oleine, and 60,000 kilos. of glycerine. It works night and day, employing 200 workmen, and makes only for shipment. It has four boilers and steam engines of 111 horse power, four distilling apparatus, and many hydraulic presses.

### Colonies.

**MANUFACTURE OF SAFES IN VICTORIA.**—Large premises have been fitted up in this colony for the manufacture of colonial safes, which are actually stated, by a colonial paper, to be superior to those of English make. There is a large demand for them in the colony, and it is said they can be made 20 per cent. cheaper than the English article.

**CULTIVATION OF SUGAR IN QUEENSLAND.**—A Brisbane paper says:—"In the cultivation of the sugar-cane the great drawback hitherto has been the probable difficulty of getting it crushed, but this difficulty, when fairly taken in hand, appears to be vanishing quickly, and we hear of the breadth of land under sugar being increased on all sides. The initiation of small machinery, although not so economically worked as mills of greater power and capability, will go far towards dissipating those groundless fears which have hitherto had possession of the farmers' minds. Information of the successful working of these mills will be hailed with great satisfaction by many who, while unable to procure the expensive machinery heretofore considered necessary, may be able to procure an arrangement costing about one-tenth of the amount. There are already two mills worked by horse-power, and two other mills are to be erected in time for next season's crop, both of much larger size than those previously mentioned, and to be worked by steam-power. In every district in the colony where agriculture is carried on, the breadth under sugar is increasing, so fully satisfied are those interested that the success of sugar cultivation is a certainty. The cost of manu-

facturing has been £5 7s. 6d. per ton, including cutting, carting, and shipment. Other machinery of moderate steam-power is shortly expected, and it will be of the most perfect description, and include all the latest improvements. That it will be the evident necessity of every planter of twenty acres and upwards to supply himself with a mill is certain, for the distance between the various plantations will, in most cases, be considerable, and the heavy carriage an insurmountable difficulty; but there are many other reasons besides the cost of carriage to induce the planter to bend all his energies to the procuring of machinery for manufacturing his own crop, notwithstanding that theorists, and even some practical men, have declared in favour of large contract factories."

### Obituary.

Sir C. WENTWORTH DILKE, Bart., died suddenly, on Monday, the 10th instant, aged 59, at St. Petersburg, to which capital he had been invited as the representative of England at the forthcoming Exhibition of the Russian Horticultural Societies. He was the only son of Mr. Charles Wentworth Dilke, and was born on the 18th February, 1810; his mother was Maria, daughter of Mr. E. Walker. His father was chief proprietor and some time editor of the *Athenaeum* newspaper, and well known as connected with the *Daily News*, and with him the subject of the present memoir was associated in the conduct of that paper, which at one period, under their joint management, was published at two-pence halfpenny, being the first attempt to bring out a daily paper in London at a reduced price, the charge for the regular daily papers of that period being fivepence. Considering that at that time the paper duty was in full force, and also the compulsory stamp, the price was virtually that of a penny paper at the present day. He was educated at Westminster School, and at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, where he took his degree in law. He was elected a member of the Society of Arts in 1845, and took much interest in its proceedings. He was a member of the Society's Committee for promoting the Great Exhibition of 1851, and was named in the Royal Commission as one of the five members of the Executive Committee of that Exhibition. On the conclusion of that brilliant success, he was loaded with the favours of foreign countries and sovereigns, and was offered by our Queen the honour of knighthood, and by the Royal Commission a large pecuniary reward. Both of these he declined, desiring that his labours should be honorary. Her Majesty, however, expressed her high appreciation of his services by sending Mrs. Dilke a diamond bracelet. In 1853, he was appointed by the Crown one of the Commissioners to represent this country at the American Industrial Exhibition in New York. A special report which he prepared was presented to the House of Commons, and ordered to be printed in the following year. As in the case of his previous labours, he declined any compensation. In 1857, he was elected Chairman of the Council of the Society of Arts, an office which he held till June, 1859. During this period, the International Exhibition of 1862 (which, it will be remembered, was originally intended to have been held in 1861) was proposed, and preliminary steps taken towards its realisation. When that Exhibition was finally decided upon, Mr. Dilke was one of the five executive Commissioners nominated by the Society of Arts, and appointed by Her Majesty in the charter for conducting it, and, on the lamented death of the Prince Consort, the Queen conferred a baronetcy upon him, in recognition of his public services, and of the esteem and regard in which he was held by the Prince. Sir Wentworth Dilke entered Parliament in 1865, as member for Wallingford. He was a Justice of the Peace for the County of Middlesex, a Fellow of the Society of

Antiquaries, a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society, a trustee of the Soane Museum, and an active member of many other public and learned bodies, especially of the Horticultural Society, the present position of which is in no small degree due to his exertions. He also took a very active part in promoting the International Horticultural Exhibition held in 1863, which, it will be remembered, was highly successful. He married, in 1840, Mary, daughter of Captain Chatfield, of the Madras Cavalry, by whom he has left two sons, Charles Wentworth and Ashton Wentworth—the former of whom (who was returned at the last election as one of the members for the new borough of Chelsea) succeeds to his honours. His indefatigable zeal and energy in promoting the various objects of the Society of Arts, tempered by a peculiarly high sense of honour, and an unswerving rectitude of purpose, will ever make his memory revered by all those who had the happiness to be associated with him, and especially by the members of the Council and officers of the Society.

### Notes.

REMOVAL OF THE OBSERVATORY AT PARIS.—The Academy of Sciences, after a careful examination of the question, has determined, by a majority of 53 to 1, that the Astronomical Observatory shall be removed from the site which it has so long occupied, at the end of the gardens of the Luxembourg, and placed within a large enclosed space of ground without, but near to the limits of the city, in order to secure the astronomers from the inconveniences caused by the neighbouring buildings, railways, roads, &c. The working of the observatory is to be entirely independent of the new one for meteorological observations, which is now being erected on Montrouge, but both will be under the direction of the Minister of Public Instruction.

### Correspondence.

VENTILATION OF DRAINS AND SEWERS.—SIR,—One of our great capitalists, when once applied to for a subscription to improve London city, is reported to have answered, "You had better pull it down and rebuild it." So in regard to any proposition for ventilating and trapping drains and sewers the best answer would be, "Keep out of them all matters liable to fermentation and the production of foul air, and in such case they would need no ventilation, and all trapping and repairs of trapping might be dispensed with." Could we add up together in one sum the prime cost of all the sewers and drains, and the mechanism of steam-engines and water-closets, public and private, take the annual interest thereon, and add it to the annual repairs, in superintendence, material, and labour, we should be startled at the amount, and find, possibly, that an enormous saving might accrue by dispensing with scientific appliances, and resorting to hand-labour instead. For the production of foul gas from putrefiable matter, warmth and moisture are required. If the warmth and moisture be applied, as in the river in warm weather, the foul gas ascends into the upper atmosphere and is neutralised. The same warmth and moisture in sewers and drains act as in a long retort, in which the surplus moisture drains downwards, and the resultant gas as infallibly drains upwards, finding its way into every crevice, and so to our dwellings, when shut in from street gratings. Even were we to erect tall chimneys at every thousand yards apart, that would not help the evil, for every rising sink or closet drain between the chimneys would serve as a supply pocket, constantly ready to leak through traps. To stop it out is almost an impossibility, when in perfect repair; to prevent uncleanness and accident is an absolute im-

possibility; for the whole area of the drains and sewers is lined with fermenting matter, and it is a struggle against nature to keep out the foul gas. The gas is trying to fulfil the purpose of nature—direct vertical escape—and we try to prevent it. The only remedy is to prevent the fermentation, by depositing the material under the earth before fermentation commences, carrying away every night the production of every day, carefully preventing any unnecessary increase of bulk by preventing all access of water. The cost of removal would be largely diminished by the diminution of bulk, and the value would be largely increased by the most valuable portion ceasing to be converted into gases, and lost. It would thus be of more proportional value than the guano we bring from Peru round Cape Horn. The non-production of sewer-gas is the only process for preventing its gaining access to our dwellings; and it is a very certain thing, that if the dry manure manufacturers could make a profit under the old system of wasteful cesspools with several years' stores, *a fortiori* a larger profit would be made from a nightly delivery. This is not an objection to the main sewers, which are a needful means of carrying off storm waters, but only a protest against their abuse. We have ceased to produce refuse in manufactories, by the modern practice of converting every refuse to uses, and we require to carry the process still further with the refuse of our dwellings.—I am, &c., W. BRIDGES ADAMS.

THE VENTILATION OF DRAINS.—SIR,—In the discussion on Mr. Lovegrove's able paper, in your *Journal* of May 14th, I am reported as advocating ventilating shafts with "disinfecting agents." I did not allude to the latter (unless fires in the shafts are meant as such), for, by a general system of sewer ventilation such as I indicated, neither "disinfecting agents" nor "traps" would be required, because a constant flow of air inwards would be as free as that of water. "Foul air" could not return any more than "filthy sewage." This appears to me to be the proper principle to prevent all nuisance from sinks, water-closets, gullies, and other openings for drains and sewers.—I am, &c., WM. GLASS, F.C.S.  
37, Princes-street, Stamford-street, S.E. May 15, 1869.

DIAMONDS AT THE CAPE.—SIR,—On the 11th inst., there appeared in the *Times* a letter (not bearing the writer's name) which expresses disbelief in the genuineness of the diamond discoveries at the Cape. As I, some months since, also questioned, through the medium of your columns, the truth of the then reported discoveries, it might very naturally be inferred that I am the writer of the letter above mentioned; but as my opinions on the subject have recently been materially altered by the evidence lately brought to my knowledge, through the kind intermediary of a gentleman of high official position at the Cape, I am very anxious to state that there no longer exists any doubt in my mind as to the Cape Colony being a "diamond-producing country." That diamonds should have been found there under such novel conditions, occurring in a soil which (according to Mr. Gregory's report and that of other geological authorities) differs considerably from that of all previously known diamond-producing districts, is no doubt startling; but it would be utterly unreasonable to set up geological precedents against patent facts, such as the finding of a diamond of the important size of 83½ carats, and others of large dimensions, the well-authenticated existence of which destroys all suspicion of trickery or imposition.—I am, &c., HARRY EMANUEL.  
18, New Bond-street, May 13th, 1869.

### MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

Mon.....Social Science Assoc., 8. Discussion on the Report of the Judicature Commission. To be opened by Mr. Chisholm Anstey.  
R. Geographical, 1. Annual Meeting.  
British Architects, 8.  
Victoria Inst., 4. Annual Meeting.

- TUES** ...R. Medical and Chirurgial, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ .  
Civil Engineers, 8.  
Ethnological, 4. Annual Meeting.  
Royal Inst., 2. Prof. Grant, "Stellar Astronomy."
- WED** ...Geological, 8. 1. Mr. A. Rattray, "On the Geology of Cape York." Communicated by the President. 2. Messrs. H. W. Bristow and W. Whitaker, "On the Formation of the Chesil Bank." 3. Mr. W. Whitaker, "On a raised Beach at Portland Bill." 4. Mr. J. W. Hulke, "On a large Saurian Humerus from the Kimmeridge Clay." 5. Prof. Huxley, "On a new form of Labyrinthodont," with Notes on its Locality and Stratigraphical Position by Mr. Louis C. Miall. 6. Prof. Huxley, "On the Upper Jaw of *Megalosaurus*." Archaeological Assoc., 8.
- THUR** ...Royal, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ .  
Antiquaries, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ .  
Zoological, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ .  
Philosophical Club, 6.  
Royal Inst. Prof. Tyndall, "On Light."  
Society of Fine Arts, 8. Exhibition of the Designs of the Art Union."
- FRI** .....Society of Arts, 8. Indian Conference on "Trade with Central Asia, Thibet, and South-Western China."  
Royal Inst., 8. Mr. Lockyer, "On Recent Discoveries in Solar Physics."  
Masonic Archaeological Inst., Freemasons' Hall, 8. Mr. Hyde Clarke, "On French Freemasonry."  
Quekett Club, 8.
- SAT** .....Royal Inst., 3. Mr. Emanuel Deutsch, "Semitic Culture."

## PARLIAMENTARY REPORTS.

### SESSIONAL PRINTED PAPERS.

- Par. Numb.**  
189. National Portrait Gallery—Twelfth Report.  
192. Foreign Sugar—Return.  
Fortifications—Report.
- Delivered on 11th May, 1869.*
166. Harbours of Refuge—Quarterly Reports.  
196. Canada (Dockyard Artisans)—Official Communications.  
Public Petitions—Twentieth Report.
- Delivered on 12th May, 1869.*
65. Bill—Life Assurance Companies (amended).  
115. „ „ Endowed Schools (amended by the Select Committee).  
120. „ „ Lands Clauses Consolidation Act Amendment (amended by the Lords).  
172. Fire Insurances—Account.  
195. New Courts of Justice—Return.  
198. Income Tax—Return.
- SESSION 1868.*
433. (9) Endowed Charities—General Digest.  
497. Local Taxation—Returns.

## Patents.

*From Commissioners of Patents' Journal, May 14.*

### GRANTS OF PROVISIONAL PROTECTION.

- Agricultural implements—1363—E. Thomas, sen., E. Thomas, jun., and J. Morris.  
Artificial stone—1383—H. Highton.  
Atmospheric railways—1015—D. J. Hoare.  
Auto-dynamic carbonic acid gas apparatus—1370—W. E. Gedge.  
Basso-reliefs, &c., apparatus for enlarging and reducing—1390—H. E. Newton.  
Bobbins—1343—J. Wilson.  
Boots and shoes, apparatus for manufacturing heels for—1355—S. H. Hodges.  
Boxes, &c., cutting joints for—1341—T. Greenwood.  
Braces—1400—G. T. Bousfield.  
Cable stoppers and controllers—1351—R. Saunders.  
Carding engines, apparatus for cleaning the cards of—1392—J. Tolson.  
Cartridges, &c.—1379—G. Clark.  
Cattle food—1380—W. MacKean.  
Cooking ranges, &c.—1349—W. Broughton and T. Steven.  
Door springs, &c.—1357—J. B. Nimmo.  
Driving bands—1325—J. G. F. and G. W. Blow.  
Engines to be used as motors, &c.—1374—W. E. Newton.  
Explosive compounds—1143—P. A. Blake.  
Explosive compounds—1193—J. Horsley.  
Fabrics, &c., apparatus for printing upon textile—903—E. Peyton.  
Felt, &c.—1328—W. Spence.  
Fire-arms, breech-loading—1342—J. Mackie.  
Flax, &c., separating the woody part from the fibre of—1360—F. W. Kaselowsky.  
Furnaces—1361—P. Southern.  
Furnaces—1362—W. Seed.  
Gas engines—1375—A. C. F. Franklin and E. Dubois.  
Harrows—1336—H. J. Seels.  
Hemp, &c., spinning—1358—B. Hunt.  
Hollow walls—1339—E. Tuttle.  
Horse rakes—1335—J. R. Jefferies.

- Kilns for manufacturing lime, &c.—1327—R. Elsdon.  
Lamps—1359—D. P. Wright and C. Butler.  
Lavatories—1329—J. Broadfoot.  
Levels—1334—R. F. Bigot.  
Looms—871—M. Siesler.  
Meat, cases for the conveyance of fresh—1363—R. Fennelly.  
Meat, &c., apparatus for preserving—1381—E. H. Richmond.  
Metallic sheets, &c., bending, &c.—1372—J. Tall and A. Williams.  
Mincing machines—1364—C. Topham.  
Mortising, tenoning, and sawing machines—1378—J. F. Kent.  
Motive-power—902—W. J. Cunningham and A. P. McCarthy.  
Ovens—1338—R. Ward.  
Oxygenated charcoal, applying for curative and other purposes—1388—T. Welton.  
Printing machines—1353—P. Barry.  
Railway carriage wheels—1373—A. V. Newton.  
Railway trains, communication in—1340—J. Smith.  
Railway trains, communication in—1396—W. Galloway.  
Reaping and mowing machines—1369—T. Perkins.  
Reaping and mowing machines—1387—R. H. Ray.  
Refrigerators—1398—G. Kent.  
Road engines—1345—E. and T. Waltham.  
Sandwiches, &c., apparatus for cutting—1283—J. Cunningham.  
Screw propellers—1384—C. Moore.  
Sewing machines—1270—P. Jensen.  
Sewing machines, &c.—1386—J. E. Phillips.  
Steam engines—1330—J. Jamieson and T. Holt.  
Steam engines—1385—C. J. Galloway and J. H. Beckwith.  
Steam engines, &c.—1377—D. Adamson.  
Steam, utilising exhaust—1354—J. Shackleton.  
Stop hinges—1348—G. Ritchie.  
Syringes or hand pumps—1344—W. B. Robins.  
Towing apparatus—1221—B. Picard.  
Velocipedes—1347—J. B. Blake.  
Velocipedes—1356—H. Williams.  
Velocipedes—1376—T. Sibley.  
Velocipedes, &c.—1009—E. Wilson.  
Ventilating apparatus—1382—A. Cocke.  
Warping or beaming machines—1367—J. Bullough.  
White lead—1260—J. Major, W. Wright, and G. H. Jones.  
Window sashes, hanging—1366—T. Cockcroft.  
Wool, &c., combing—1394—I. and G. Battinson and T. Whitehead.  
Worsted spinning frames—1346—J. P. Balm and R. Newton.

### INVENTIONS WITH COMPLETE SPECIFICATIONS FILED.

- Bronze ordnance—1430—W. R. Lake.  
Metals, casting under pressure—1443—B. J. B. Mills.  
Steam and other enginery—1444—J. A. Marden.

### PATENTS SEALED.

- |                                      |                                 |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 3493. J. E. H. Harris and T. Lumley. | 3523. J. McGlashan.             |
| 3499. C. Richardson.                 | 3524. J. D. Hopkins.            |
| 3506. A. McDougall.                  | 3541. C. E. Brooman.            |
| 3507. A. W. Drayson.                 | 3545. F. W. Webb.               |
| 3510. W. T. Bassett.                 | 3553. C. Crabtree and J. Stell. |
| 3513. S. Crighton and J. Taft.       | 3554. B. and B. T. Newnham.     |
| 3514. W. Thompson.                   | 3593. N. D. Spartali.           |
| 3519. D. Jones and J. Jackson.       | 3761. W. S. Jackson.            |
| 3521. J. Green.                      | 439. H. B. Binko.               |
|                                      | 919. H. A. Bonneville.          |

*From Commissioners of Patents' Journal, May 18.*

### PATENTS ON WHICH THE STAMP DUTY OF £50 HAS BEEN PAID.

- |                     |                      |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1351. W. Austin.    | 1435. P. J. Messent. |
| 1358. B. Nicoll.    | 1402. J. Beale.      |
| 1361. T. Hunt.      | 1501. W. R. Pape.    |
| 1379. G. Haseltine. | 1442. J. J. Marçais. |
| 1365. A. P. Price.  |                      |

### PATENTS ON WHICH THE STAMP DUTY OF £100 HAS BEEN PAID.

- |                      |                     |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| 1424. H. Cartwright. | 1450. C. T. Porter. |
| 1467. J. Dicker.     | 1466. J. P. Jouvin. |

## Registered Designs.

- 5016—April 1—Lever for washing cradles—J. Crooks, Dublin.  
5017—April 6—Needle case—J. W. Lewis, Birmingham.  
5018—April 16—Automaton sponge—F. Walton, Wolverhampton.  
5019—April 17—Nut for screw rivet—Sampson and Co., Wolverhampton.  
5020—April 19—Hydraulic lift—Wood and Cairns, Edinburgh.  
5021—April 23—The Imperial saloon cabin lamp—G. H. May and Co., High-street, Isle of Wight.  
5022—May 3—Holdfast safety envelope—Parkins and Gotto, Oxford-street, W.  
5023—May 4—Ice cup or jug—W. Spurrier, Birmingham.  
5024—May 6—Garden weeder—Frederick K. Barclay, Bury-hill, Dorking, Surrey.  
5025—May 7—Collect for the stones of articles of jewellery—Robottom and Pendleton, Birmingham.  
5026—May 11—Wheel for reaping machines—R. Wallace, Whitlatts-by-Ayr.